

The Nation

VOL. XXXVIII.—NO. 972.

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NET ASSETS, January 1, 1883.....	\$50,172,371 91
RECEIVED IN 1883—	
For Premiums.....	\$4,820,098 07
For Interest and Rents.....	2,793,912 45
Profit and Loss.....	247,212 35—
	7,870,222 87
	\$58,042,594 78

DISBURSED IN 1883.

TO POLICY-HOLDERS:	
For claims by death and matured endowments.....	\$3,812,977 32
Surplus returned to policy-holders.....	1,189,696 54
Lapsed and surrendered policies.....	779,177 93
Total to policy-holders.....	\$5,781,851 79
EXPENSES:	
Commissions to agents, salaries, medical examiners' fees, printing, advertising, legal, real estate, and all other expenses.....	700,290 61
TAXES.....	344,871 06
	\$6,827,013 46
BALANCE NET ASSETS, December 31, 1883.....	\$51,215,581 32

SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.

Loans upon real estate, first lien.....	\$24,049,620 50
Loans upon stocks and bonds.....	465,384 41
Premium notes on policies in force.....	2,849,266 50
Cost of real estate owned by the Company.....	12,101,213 36
Cost of United States registered bonds.....	99,125 00
Cost of State bonds.....	19,900 00
Cost of city bonds.....	1,762,873 69
Cost of other bonds.....	8,752,201 89
Cost of bank stock.....	122,761 00
Cost of railroad stock.....	26,000 00
Cash in bank.....	964,748 34
Balance due from agents.....	2,586 63
	\$51,215,581 32

ADD	
Interest due and accrued.....	\$1,029,792 71
Rents accrued.....	16,493 54
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost.....	259,037 11
Net premiums in course of collection.....	NONE.
Net deferred quarterly and semi-annual premiums.....	50,196 78
	\$1,355,520 14

GROSS ASSETS, December 31, 1883..... \$52,571,101 46

LIABILITIES:	
Amount required to reinsure all outstanding policies, net, assuming 4 per cent. interest.....	\$47,766,413 00
Additional reserve by Company's Standard, 3 per cent. on policies issued since April 1, 1882.....	37,980 00
All other liabilities.....	740,431 99
	\$48,544,824 99

SURPLUS by Company's Standard.....	\$4,026,276 47
SURPLUS by Connecticut Standard, 4 per cent.....	4,064,256 47
SURPLUS by New York Standard, 4½ per cent., over.....	7,000,000 00

Ratio of expenses of management to receipts in 1883..... 8.9 per cent.
Policies in force December 31, 1883, 63,595, insuring..... \$155,433,409 00

JACOB L. GREENE, President.

JOHN M. TAYLOR, Secretary.

PHILIP S. MILLER,

General Agent for N. Y. City, Long Island, and New Jersey,
1 WALL STREET, COR. BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1884.

The Week.

THE course of trade during the past week has been seriously affected by the disastrous floods in the Middle States. The slight improvement in the iron trade which was noticed at Pittsburgh and Wheeling a week ago has been more than neutralized by the inundation of the Ohio River, but, as this is only a temporary evil, it may be reasonably hoped that the improved condition of the chief local industries will show itself in a more unmistakable manner when the waters subside. Increasing attention is drawn to the development of the iron resources of North Alabama, and it is confidently affirmed that the centre of gravity, as regards the production of pig-iron in the United States, will be found in that region within the next few years. The price of pig-iron has advanced slightly—according to *Bradstreet's*, 50 cents per ton. The same authority gives the number of business failures during the week at 257, being 108 less than in the preceding week, and one more than in the corresponding week of last year. General merchandise traffic in the West, according to the *Chicago Tribune*, shows no improvement. Here in New York the improvement if any is very slight. The *Dry Goods Bulletin* says that travelling agents, who are on the road in large numbers, report that it is exceedingly difficult to secure orders, and that buyers from the interior, who are here in plenty, show no disposition to purchase beyond immediate needs, except in cases where the inducements are very tempting. Many classes of goods are selling below cost, but the stoppage of many mills in New England has stiffened the market somewhat. Business on the Stock Exchange is still confined to the large speculators and their following of room traders; nevertheless there has been a marked advance during the week, especially among the coal carriers. Sterling exchange has moved up to within one-quarter of a cent of the specie-exporting point, yet the opinion prevails that we shall not lose any gold of consequence.

Senator McPherson's bill to suspend the coinage of silver dollars until the 1st of January, 1886, is coupled with a proviso much worse than the law which it proposes to suspend—worse, indeed, than the original Bland bill, for which the existing Silver Bill was substituted. The Bland bill, as introduced, proposed to put silver and gold on the same footing at the mint, the coinage of either to be without limit. Nevertheless the coinage of silver would have been limited by the capacity of the mint to produce such dollars, and would not have been much if at all in excess of two millions per month. The McPherson bill (if correctly reported) proposes to make gold and silver *bullion* legal tender without limitations when bearing the mint stamp attesting their weight and fineness. This is more than the silver-men ever asked or

dreamed of, and is so absurd that we can hardly believe that it is seriously meant. That part of the bill which proposes to make gold bullion legal tender is, of course, nugatory, because gold bullion passes everywhere at its full value without any mint stamp, and is preferred to coin for purposes of international exchange. It would be a measure of economy, if Mr. McPherson's views are to prevail, to place Government assayers at all the silver-smelting works in the country to stamp the pig metal legal tender as it comes from the furnace, because the expense of carting it to and from the mint would thus be saved.

There is a good deal of doubt as to whether the inquiry into the transportation question in Congress will result in any legislation at the present session. The constitutionality of any attempt to fix rates on railroads chartered by the States is by no means clear, and the only other course open to Congress is to provide for a Commission, with full powers of inquiry, to consider the whole subject and report upon it. This seems to Mr. Reagan and other earnest men a most unsatisfactory and half-hearted way of dealing with the railroads. Yet it is the only way to obtain trustworthy information on which to base legislation. Secrecy is the curse of the railroad system of this country, and one reason why so many railroad men seem to have a craze for secrecy is, that they dread the barbarous and communistic attacks on the property they manage which are continually threatened or attempted in State Legislatures and at Washington.

The Senate "outrage" investigating committee has decided to conduct its inquiry into the Coghlan County case, in New Orleans, rather than in the county itself. The reasons given for this course are, first, that hotel accommodations are better in New Orleans, and second, that by sitting 150 miles away from the scene of the trouble the members of the Committee will be in no personal peril, and the witnesses will be more free from local pressure. About 100 witnesses are to be examined, and either before or after their examination the Committee will go to Mississippi and inspect the scene of the murder. This decision is probably a wise one in many ways. It will increase the cost of the inquiry somewhat, but there will undoubtedly be much less furious partisan feeling excited in Mississippi than there would be if the inquiry were to be conducted there. Whether the ultimate result will furnish as stirring a campaign document as would be the case if the "rebel spirit" were to be thoroughly aroused by an inquiry on the spot, is another question. We doubt very much, however, if, under the most favorable conditions, a strong campaign issue can be developed from the investigation.

It has been discovered in Washington that the bill regulating the Presidential succession has a bearing on the "first lady in the land"

question—i. e., the question as to who is the official female head of society. The bill provides for the performance of the duties of the office of President or Vice-President, in case of their absence, death, or inability, by a Cabinet officer, beginning with the Secretary of State. The bill, which has passed the Senate, thus puts the Cabinet next the President in dignity, and leaves the Speaker and his wife, who, according to some authorities, ought to come next to the President, out in the cold. Should the bill pass, the wife of the Secretary of State will thus be first lady in the land, beyond cavil or dispute. Apparently this is used as an argument against the bill, the idea of its opponents being that Mrs. Carlisle will never allow her husband to permit any bill to pass which threatens to diminish her social prestige. But the matter has got to be settled, one way or the other, sooner or later; and if conjugal lobbying is to begin, the wives of all the Cabinet officers will, no doubt, use whatever influence they possess to get it through, and their social power is very great. Mr. Carlisle might quietly "block" the bill, but this would be an abuse of his power which there is nothing in his character or career to warrant us in thinking probable; and even if political considerations counted for nothing with regard to it, we should say that the fashionable pressure of the Cabinet would be enough to get it through. It must be remembered that the social dignity of the Speaker is a matter in which his fellow-members' wives take little interest, most of them having the same relation to fashionable society in Washington that most Albany legislators have to fashionable society in New York.

The House Judiciary Committee has favorably reported an important bill relating to United States Circuit courts, and to the transfer of causes from State to Federal courts. The first change proposed is to increase the minimum jurisdiction from \$500 to \$2,000. The reasons given in the report are the growth of business in the country, the increase of population from 4,000,000, when the limit of \$500 was fixed, to 50,000,000; and the fact that the Circuit courts are in most States "overloaded with business." The last is of course the real reason, the other two being merely explanations of the accumulation of business in these courts. The mere fact of an increase in population is no better reason for increasing the limit than the discovery of the telephone would be. The important question is, What is to become of the business crowded out of the Circuit courts by an increase of the limit? The Committee say it would go to the State courts. But in most cases when the Circuit courts are crowded the State courts are also, and it seems rather hard for Congress to clog the State tribunals merely for the purpose of clearing its own.

Other changes recommended are of much less doubtful utility. The bill restricts to the defendant the right to remove a cause from

a State to a Federal court. As the law stands, either party may remove, and the plaintiff now sometimes brings a suit in a State court with a deliberate intention of removing in order to worry the defendant and increase his expenses. To prevent this the bill requires the plaintiff ordinarily to abide by the forum which he selects in the first instance. His right to remove is preserved, however, in the only case in which there is any necessity for it—i. e., when he shows that he cannot expect a fair trial in the State court. Other provisions are designed to restrict the abuse which has grown up of removing corporation suits into or bringing them in the Federal courts merely on the ground that the corporation is a "citizen" of another State. The clauses of the bill which relate to this topic will need careful examination by experts in this abstruse branch of practice. It is one which only a few lawyers in the United States know anything about, and a sweeping or careless change in the law may produce unexpected and undesirable effects.

It is evident that, so far as New York and Pennsylvania are concerned, all efforts to "pack" the delegations to the National Republican Convention this year will meet with strenuous opposition. In Pennsylvania the voters of the various Congressional districts are arranging for themselves, without assistance from the State Committee, plans of agreement by which they may select their delegates in advance of the meeting of the State Convention. In this State nothing definite has been done yet, but an early meeting of the State Committee is promised at which the matter will be considered. In Brooklyn the Independent Republicans are preparing to organize against any possible efforts on the part of Machine politicians to elect a delegation in their personal interest. There are evidences in both States of a powerful Republican sentiment in favor of independent and representative delegations, showing that the masses of the party realize, if the leaders do not, that the main hope of a Republican victory next November lies in the choice of a ticket which, both by its methods of selection and the character of its candidate, will command the support of all classes of Republican voters.

The suggestion of a South Carolinian paper that pistols should be taxed, and heavily taxed, is an excellent one. The wonder is that people who try to make the tax collector a champion of morality and order have not proposed this long ago. The pistol is, almost as much as whiskey, the curse of American society. It is a weapon with which probably nine tenths of the crimes of violence are committed, and which more than anything else makes drunkards dangerous. The possession of it, too, suggests crime to thousands, if not tens of thousands, of men every year, who, without the pistol, would never have thought of it, or been tempted into it. In fact, it may be said of the revolver, with hardly any exaggeration, that it has proved to be, more than anything else, an aid to the criminal classes in their warfare against society. For

military purposes its value is very small. It is only cavalry which is armed with it; and cavalry which relies on its pistols at close quarters is notoriously inefficient. For the protection of life and property it does little or nothing. The cases are rare indeed in which honest men "get the drop on" thieves, or burglars, or foot-pads. The cases are awfully numerous in which they are shot down by ruffians before they have time to draw a weapon at all. Moreover, the laws against carrying concealed weapons are, in all the States, notoriously inoperative. The evidence of violation of them is hardly ever obtainable except through the occurrence of some more serious crime. By far the surest way of diminishing pistol-carrying would be to make pistols dear by high taxation. A tax on them, too, could be easily levied, because it could be levied at the factory.

Mr. Austin Corbin, President of the Long Island Railroad, is rebuked by the *Sun*, we are glad to see, for suggesting lynch law to the Long Island farmers. We are loth to believe that he really said: "Their vigilance committees will make the way of the transgressor hard in future." The *Sun* calls attention to the fact that Mr. Corbin is a lawyer, or at any rate a Bachelor of Laws, having a degree from Harvard, granted in 1849. But a far more significant fact about him is that he is President of a railroad which is engaged in "developing" Long Island, and which needs for its prosperity a general belief that life and property are protected there, not by "the farmers" or vigilance committees, but by the law, by sheriffs, policemen, judges, district-attorneys, hangmen, and jailers. If these can no longer be relied on in Long Island, the Long Island Railroad is doomed to a precarious existence, and Mr. Corbin's various enterprises are exposed to the greatest possible risk. Lawyers do all sorts of queer things, but it would be strange indeed if railroad presidents were to begin to show signs of a belief in "the farmers" as a substitute for law in places to which they wish to attract population.

An important circular has recently been sent out by Keely to the faithful band of disciples who are enabling him to carry on his great work. It is pleasant to learn from this that he is able to "state positively (as regards the mechanical) that the first of the coming month will find all thoroughly completed, and there will be nothing left but setting up the transitive process, when all labors will terminate, preparative to operating and showing up the specific qualities of the perfect vibratory engine." The only point as to which there is any doubt is as to the time necessary for "the line of graduation." This, he frankly says, may only be a matter of a few days, or it may take weeks; but at any rate he feels that "the final issue is nigh at hand." He suggests that arrangements be made for an exhibition; but would any exhibition without the line of graduation be worth while? No stockholder who believes in Keely at all can fairly insist on his exhibiting such an invention as he describes before he completes it. It is only sceptics who do this.

The Boston *Herald* publishes a despatch of a very curious sort with regard to the estate of the late W. F. Weld, of that city. He died not long ago, leaving a property of \$20,000,000. The despatch is dated Philadelphia, and states that the first account of the executors has just been filed in that city. The reason is that Mr. Weld, shortly before his death, changed his residence from Boston to Philadelphia. As the Pennsylvania tax system is the most enlightened in the country, and the Massachusetts system one of the most barbarous, is it not fair to infer that Mr. Weld went off quietly to die in Philadelphia in order that his estate might not be too severely bled at home? The case suggests, at any rate, a new kind of tax-dodging for rich men anticipating death. Tax-dodging within the State may be made difficult, but a bona-fide change of residence for the purpose of dying beyond the jurisdiction of the local law is hard to deal with. An executor cannot be extradited for administering the estate in Philadelphia, and, in fact, it looks as if the villain in such a case would escape justice altogether.

The death of Wendell Phillips has drawn a good deal of attention in Boston to the decline of old-fashioned American oratory. In going over the ground to find what survivors of the old school are left, the only important name that occurs to any one is that of Mr. Robert C. Winthrop. Various causes have been suggested for the gradual disappearance of the old school—among others the rise in importance of political discussions in the press. But this, though it would naturally have an effect on oratory, ought not to kill it altogether. There is a chance for the orator, even with an active press to discuss the same subjects which he discusses, in a perfectly cold and critical way. One reason why we have less finished political speaking than we once had, is that in Congress and our legislative bodies generally, there is no such thing as a real debate, in which the action of the body is determined by what takes place on the floor. To have good debates, you must have a debating body.

The *Paper World*, the trade organ, makes some dismal but appropriate comments on the two-cent movement among the morning papers, as "wholly unnecessary and unwise," and as "having inflicted the greatest injury on the journals themselves which took part in it, or upon such of them as have seemed to think it necessary to lower their standard with their prices." "To meet an increasing mass of people," it justly remarks, "with an apparently decreasing respect for their tastes, was an insult felt by former friends and admirers, that is frequently complained of." The illustrated papers, too, have very effectively joined in the protest against this decreasing respect for the popular tastes shown by some who have figured in the movement. It is not simply the collection of filth and triviality that is complained of, but the inordinate expansion and conspicuousness given to it. Any dirty little incident that can be "worked up" is spread out so as to occupy space enough for the story of a revolution or the biography of a deceased hero. This is, of course, not tell-

ing the news, but providing low literature. That it is going to prove a great business mistake is the general belief and hope, which is not weakened by the ruffianly way in which all criticism of it is resented by the performers in it.

A new kind of coöperative housekeeping, described in the *Sun* of Sunday, is said to prevail in apartment houses suited to persons of moderate means:

"There is a common kitchen for many families, and out of what they all contribute a superior or an artistic cook can be employed. They can thus get, with certain slight limitations inseparable from cooking on a large scale, as good meals as the richest enjoy—or, at least, meals which are beyond reasonable criticism. Maids are also supplied in such houses, and the domestic machinery accordingly moves with little friction. There is also much less repugnance to such service than to service in a single family."

Apartment life with meals beyond reasonable criticism, and servants "supplied," would meet a "long-felt want" in New York. But who engages and discharges the cook and the "maids"? Is a vote taken at the close of every day? If so, how, in case of disagreement among the families, is the matter settled? The details of the administration of such a coöperative system are far more important than the mere fact that the experiment has been tried; and we think it wrong in our contemporary to withhold the facts, which it says promise to dispose of the whole servant question.

Governor Cleveland has selected Professor Theodore W. Dwight and Messrs. George B. Sloan, D. W. Ogden, Norman W. Allen, and Walter M. Thayer as Commissioners on Prison Labor, and the Senate has promptly confirmed them. The selections are very good. Professor Dwight is the President of the State Prison Association. His associates are all competent men, and are all capable of giving us, if they have time, a thorough and non-partisan investigation of the question. The bill authorizing the Commission originated in the Prison Association, and was in no sense a partisan measure. The purpose of its authors was to get at the real merits and defects of the present system of convict labor, and propose such remedies as would give the State the system which would be most desirable and at the same time most beneficial to all parties. An attempt was made in the Senate, by the Hon. "Tim" Campbell and other like statesmen, to give the bill a partisan aspect, but the Governor was not influenced at all by this manœuvre. He has appointed a Commission which will work in entire harmony with the spirit of the bill under which they are to act, but the shortness of the period allowed for the report—three weeks—makes it unlikely that they will be able to do justice to the subject.

Mr. Clarence Cook writes to the *Times* explaining why he did not appear on the witness stand during the late Feuardent-Cesnola trial. The reason, as we suspected, is "to be found

in the fact that he had no evidence to give as to facts within his own knowledge." This, however, makes another explanation necessary. If he knew nothing of his personal knowledge as to the facts in the case, why did he make such a dreadful uproar about it for two years in letters and pamphlets? Is it really true that he knew nothing about "the fraudulent patchwork of unrelated parts"? It would seem so, and we suspected as much. When the fraudulent patchwork was put out on the floor of the Museum two years ago for public inspection, Mr. Cook's post of honor was at its side, but he was not there. He ought to have been there each day through the whole week from 9 to 5 (with occasional intervals, of course, for rest and refreshment), pamphlet in hand, showing how the fraud was committed and covered up. Mr. Cook now says that his activity was all along of his love for Mr. Feuardent and his hatred of Mr. di Cesnola. But nobody has done more for Mr. di Cesnola than Mr. Cook. Nothing has helped that gentleman so effectively as the failure of his opponents to follow up their noise with proof. No writer who respects himself ought to take part in a controversy of this kind with the deliberate intention of confining himself to "hollering."

General Gordon has got to Berber, about 150 miles below Khartum, and without an escort. This is rather remarkable, but the worst is not over, as the rest of the way to Khartum will probably be more dangerous. As the *London Times* says, "the dromedary which carries him probably also carries the fortunes of the Ministry." If he should be killed or captured, it would undoubtedly be a heavy blow for the Government, but there is not much chance of its proving fatal. The majority of the voters are hardly ready to give the solution of the Egyptian problem to the Tories, in their present condition, and with the memory of Lord Salisbury's foreign policy still strong. The appearance of Professor Tyndall on the scene to clamor for a more vigorous policy, recalls a dithyrambic glorification of the bombardment of Alexandria which he issued last year from Switzerland. He then said that this operation satisfied him "that he had a country," Arabi Bey's doings in Egypt apparently having caused him some doubt on that point. Mr. Tyndall is evidently more at home among the clouds and the glaciers than in politics, either home or foreign.

The "remedy" of General Stone, that the British Government should send 100,000 men into the Sudan to reconquer that country—50,000 to be Indian troops, the rest British—will probably be received by the British taxpayers as one of those Yankee jokes from which they have of late derived so much amusement. Those who know Egypt or care about the fate of the country can hardly do better work just now than explaining why the Egyptians ever went into the Sudan at all, or what good they did while there. It may be that there is, as General Stone suggests, something wrong in giving Egyptian money just now to the English bondholders, but if

the alternative is, as he proposes, the use of it to make war in the Sudan, it is decidedly better to let the bondholders have it, even if they use it in luxurious indulgence. In their hands it will at least not help to swell the sum of human misery, by sending thousands of men to perish in trying to subjugate people who have done Egypt no harm, and to whom Egypt can do no good.

The Queen's book, if the telegraphic summary of it be fair, will, we fear, be pleasant reading to the extreme Radicals all over the world. Its contents are, of course, perfectly harmless, and in places doubtless pathetic and interesting; and if it were written by a widowed mother who liked taking the world into her confidence about the joys and sorrows of her domestic life, would hardly be open to any but approving criticism. But it is the work of a very highly paid sovereign, whose interest in and knowledge of the politics of the great Empire over which she reigns have been lately represented as very great. Of these things the book seems to contain hardly a trace. She talks of the world as if it were made simply for royal personages to be happy or suffer in. Tell el Kebir was important to her apparently because the Duke of Connaught was in the field, and all political events are seen from the same domestic point of view. The exaltation of John Brown, too, a common Highland gillie, who occasionally got drunk, which has so much tried the patience of the English public, is persisted in. His mental devotion to his mistress is rated so highly as to lead her to disregard the *inconveniences* of ordinary English life, not to say of royal life, for the purpose of doing honor to his memory. He is treated in the Queen's book as if he were a great soldier and a great statesman; and the only English statesman who receives any favorable notice is the one of recent times who has been most distinguished as an obsequious flatterer and courtier. In fact, the work is one which no real friend of royalty in our day ought to be able to read without a tremor.

Bradlaugh has resigned his seat, and has doubtless gone back to Northampton for re-election, which he will secure. That is to say, the one body of persons in the kingdom to whom his qualifications as a legislator are a real concern think they are very good. Moreover, the majority of the House has put him in a position which makes him the champion of the old principle for which Wilkes fought a century ago—that the constituency is the supreme judge of the representative's fitness, as long as he rests under no legal disability. The result is that the Northampton people cannot throw him overboard if they would. He will certainly sit in the next Parliament with all the honors of a martyr, and with some of the honors of a defender of the constitutional rights of electors; and the Parliamentary oath and the cause of religion and morality will be no better off than before.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 6, to TUESDAY, February 12, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

Mr. MORRILL (Rep., Vt.) addressed the Senate at length on the subject of the new library building on Thursday, showing the insufficiency of the present and the amplitude of the proposed accommodations. The total ultimate cost of the building, he said, would be \$3,362,000, and as the edifice would last for centuries, this sum was not too great. The plan would accommodate 3,000,000 books. A bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday appropriating \$500,000 to begin the work.

The Senate Committee on Commerce on Thursday authorized Senator Frye to report to the Senate for passage a new bill for the relief of American shipping. A drawback of 90 per cent. is allowed on imported materials used in the construction of vessels built in this country for foreign account, whether such vessels are built wholly or only in part of foreign materials. The Postmaster-General shall be authorized to contract with American vessels for carrying United States mails to and from foreign ports for a sum not exceeding \$1 per nautical mile for the round trip. The contracts to be made after advertisement with the lowest bidders.

The Senate Shipping Bill, as reported accordingly by Senator Frye from the Committee on Commerce, was taken up by the House Shipping Committee on Monday, and Representative Hunt was authorized to report to the House a bill covering such features of the Senate bill as are not embodied in the Dingley bill. These, in substance, authorize the Postmaster-General to contract with American steamers for carrying mails at prices which shall not exceed the net proceeds of postage collected on foreign mail matter for the preceding year, nor one dollar a mile.

The Senate debated the Greely Relief Bill again hotly on Friday. Mr. Ingalls criticised Secretary Chandler for buying foreign ships for the relief expedition, and for dictating to the House conferees their course.

Senator Riddleberger on Monday made a speech on his resolution to investigate alleged violations of the Civil-Service Act. He said that half of the persons in the departments put down as coming from Virginia came from other States; that twenty wounded soldiers have been discharged from the House, and that the reason given them by those who discharged them was that they had not voted right.

The House of Representatives debated its rules on Thursday. The proposed Committee on Woman Suffrage was defeated, as was Mr. Skinner's plan to establish an executive committee of fifteen members, on the eight-to-seven plan, to consider all bills reported favorably from other committees, and rank them in order of merit on an executive calendar.

Mr. Morrison hoped to have his tariff bill rushed through the Committee of Ways and Means and reported to the House by Tuesday, but at a meeting on Thursday two things were determined—first, that the majority of the Committee would insist that hearings be given to persons interested; second, that if it was necessary that members of the Committee should have schedules to know what the effect of the bill was to be, it was very important that those whose business is to be affected by the proposed legislation should have the same information. This will cause delay.

The House Committee on Appropriations, at a meeting on Monday, agreed to report a bill for the immediate appropriation of \$300,000 for the sufferers by the floods along the Ohio River and its tributaries. The bill was passed by the House and by the Senate.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures on Monday agreed to report a

bill for the exchange of the trade dollar for standard dollars, or for their receipt for Government dues within two years. The Committee on Banking and Currency were, on Tuesday, discharged by the House from further consideration of the subject.

Mr. Potter (Dem., N. Y.) introduced in the House on Tuesday a new funding bill. It authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to convert the present 3 per cent., 4 per cent., and 4½ per cent. bonds into new 2½ per cent. bonds, each new bond to be payable at the same time and on the same conditions as the bond for which it is substituted. In making the exchange of the new bond for 4s and 4½s the Secretary is authorized to pay such sum in each case as shall be equal to the amount saved in interest to the country. The bill reduces the tax on circulation of national banks one-half.

The State Senate on Tuesday passed the bill prohibiting the renewal of any of the prison contracts now in force or the execution of any new ones. In the Assembly there was a lively debate on a bill to spend \$30,000 in enlarging a lock on the Erie Canal. The proposal is an experiment which, if successful, would result in a general and gradual enlargement of the Erie Canal. This brought on a discussion of the whole question. The bill was finally ordered to a third reading without objection.

In the Senate at Albany, on Thursday, the Assembly Prison-Labor Commission Bill was passed by a strict partisan vote of 17 (Rep.) to 11 (Dem.).

The bill to limit the hours of work of horse-car drivers and conductors in New York and Brooklyn was passed by the Assembly, on Wednesday, by a vote of 80 to 32. The opposition was Republican, with one exception. A resolution in favor of biennial sessions was offered in the Assembly on that day.

John J. O'Brien has been elected Chairman of the New York Republican County Committee. This is a substantial victory for the old Machine.

The Virginia House of Delegates on Thursday passed a bill, which has been adopted by the Senate, taking the election machinery of the State out of the hands of the Mahonites.

High water and dangerous floods to an unprecedented extent prevailed in the large rivers east of the Mississippi during the week. Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Wheeling were the greatest sufferers, thousands of people being made homeless. The damage to property will reach several million dollars. Appeals for relief have been sent from Cincinnati and other towns.

Henry S. Church, Chamberlain of the city of Troy, is missing, and it has been discovered that he is a defaulter to the amount of about \$80,000.

Arnold Henry Guyot, Professor of Geology and Physical Geography at Princeton College, died on Friday at the age of seventy-six. He was a native of Switzerland, a fellow-student and friend of Agassiz, and a laborer with him in the study of the Alps. Professor Guyot was the first to discover the laminated structure of glaciers, and he made a thorough study of the distribution of erratic boulders in the Alps to determine the mode of their transportation. He came to this country in 1848, following Agassiz, and delivered a series of lectures in Boston, which gave him a great reputation. They were published in a book called 'Earth and Man,' which has run through many editions. He was the author of a valuable series of geographies, and of a book on 'Creation,' soon to be published, the last proof sheets of which he read a few days before his death. For thirty years he was a successful and respected professor at Princeton.

The Rev. Simeon North, D.D., LL.D., ex-President of Hamilton College, died on Satur-

day night at Clinton, N. Y., aged eighty-two. He was graduated from Yale College in 1825, and was President of Hamilton College from 1839 to 1857. His published works consist principally of sermons and special discourses.

Mr. Thomas Kinsella, editor of the Brooklyn *Eagle* since 1861, died on Monday afternoon. He was a member of Congress in 1870-2. He was one of the earliest and most zealous advocates of the Liberal movement in 1872. Since then he has been a member of many Democratic conventions and of the State Committee of his party. As an editorial writer he was forcible and direct, and as a manager he carefully superintended all departments of his paper.

The will of the late President H. E. Packer, of the Lehigh Valley Road, leaves the bulk of his property to his wife. At her death twenty twenty thirds of it goes to the Lehigh University at Bethlehem, and three twenty-thirds to St. Luke's Hospital, Bethlehem, both of which were built and liberally endowed by his father. The estate is estimated at over \$4,000,000.

Wendell Phillips's funeral in Boston on Wednesday was conducted without any ostentation. Services were held in the Hollis Street Church in the forenoon. The coffin was borne up the central aisle, Samuel E. Sewall, Dr. O. W. Holmes, Theodore D. Weld, John M. Forbes, Wendell Phillips Garrison, Lewis Hayden, Wm. I. Bowditch, Charles K. Whipple, Richard P. Hallowell, and E. M. Davis serving as pall-bearers. The plate was inscribed "Wendell Phillips, died Feb. 2, 1884, aged 72 years." The Rev. Samuel Longfellow and the Rev. Samuel May conducted the services. There was no address. A company of the Sixth Regiment, accompanied by the Robert G. Shaw Veteran Association, colored, when the coffin was borne out from the meeting-house and placed in the hearse, acted as an escort. The procession moved to Faneuil Hall, where the body lay in state for several hours and was viewed by thousands of people. In the afternoon, about 4:30 o'clock, the procession was reformed and the body was taken to the family tomb in the Granary Burying Ground, in the heart of Old Boston. There were no services at the tomb.

A great audience in Plymouth Church, on Sunday morning, listened to a sermon by Mr. Beecher upon Wendell Phillips. Mr. Beecher spoke first of the anti-slavery days, and then of the career of Mr. Phillips, of whom he said in closing: "When pigmies are all dead, the noble countenance of Wendell Phillips will still look forth, radiant as a rising sun—a sun that will never set. He has become to us a lesson, his death an example, his whole history an encouragement to mankind and to heroic manhood." Felix Adler eulogized the great orator in Chickering Hall, and several other similar discourses were held.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday there was an exciting scene. Mr. Gladstone said that the Government did not feel called upon to adopt fresh measures because of Baker Pasha's disaster. Lord Randolph Churchill, Conservative member for Woodstock, gave notice that he should introduce an amendment to the address, asking the removal of the present Ministers and the substitution of others who were fitter. Forty Conservatives supported the amendment, which the Speaker ruled out of order. Lord Randolph Churchill thereupon moved that the House adjourn for the purpose of calling attention to urgent public business. All the Conservatives, including the leaders, rose to their feet in support of the motion. Great excitement prevailed. After a warm debate the motion was negatived without a division.

Following close on Baker Pasha's disastrous defeat came the announcement from Suakim on Wednesday that the rebels had surrounded and destroyed Tewfik Bey and

400 followers between Sinkat and the coast. The report was premature.

Further excitement was created on Thursday by a rumor that General Gordon had been captured, but it proved to be unfounded. On the same day a letter which Gordon had written was made public, in which he said that England acted wisely in abandoning the Sudan. "For," he said, "unless England shall secure the Sudan in the possession of a good government, it ought not to conquer the country itself nor allow others to do so."

General Gordon arrived safely at Berber on Monday. He asked for robes of honor and swords to distribute to local dignitaries. Sir Samuel Baker believes that General Gordon will arrive at Khartum in safety, but will be powerless when he gets there.

The Sudan crisis was still further intensified on Tuesday by the news brought to Suakim by a friendly Arab chief that Sinkat had been captured by the rebels. Tewfik Bey, preferring death to surrender, blew up the fortifications, spiked the guns, and made a sortie. His 600 men were all massacred. There was also an alarming rumor that Tokar had also fallen. A Cabinet Council was immediately summoned to discuss Egyptian affairs. Seven men-of-war belonging to the Channel Squadron were ordered to Egyptian waters.

In the House of Lords the Marquis of Salisbury made the motion that in the opinion of the House the recent lamentable events in the Sudan were largely due to the vacillating policy of the Government. After a speech by the Marquis of Salisbury on the motion, Earl Granville replied, saying that it was necessary now for the Government to be careful, so as not to clash with the larger views of General Gordon. The Government, however, had ascertained that it would not interfere with Gordon's plans if a force were sent to act around Suakim, with a view to the relief of Tokar. Since the defeat of Baker Pasha it had been altogether impossible to relieve Sinkat. The Government had no intention of annexing Egypt. The Marquis of Salisbury's resolution was carried by 181 to 81.

In the House of Commons a similar motion was made by Sir Stafford Northcote, who in his speech declared that the conduct of the Government would greatly complicate the present issues; that it would probably close the great trade route from the equatorial lakes to the Red Sea, give impetus to the slave trade, and greatly diminish English prestige. Mr. Gladstone was greeted with cheers when he rose to reply. He pointed out that the present situation in Egypt had not been created by the Government, but had been left to them by the previous Ministry. Seven thousand men, he said, had been ordered to Suakim. General Gordon had a plan of his own for restoring the Sudan to a peaceful condition by giving back to the former rulers their ancestral powers usurped by Egypt. He denounced as a gross error the Dual Control which had been left him as a legacy. In conclusion he asked for the Government the acquittal to which it was entitled. After several more speeches the debate was adjourned.

The Dublin *Irish Times* asserts that there is a strong difference of opinion among the Parnellites in regard to their votes on Sir Stafford Northcote's motion of censure apropos of the Government's Egyptian policy.

Admiral Hewett has been invested with the civil and military command of Suakim, and that place is believed to be perfectly safe.

The Paris *Figaro* on Monday asserted that El Mahdi's troops had taken Sankeit, near Kassala, and Ravina, a small seaport north of Suakim. It said an English gunboat had been despatched to shell Ravina.

Prof. Tyndall, who is a Liberal, has written a letter strongly condemning the Govern-

ment's Egyptian policy. For more than three years, he says, it has been leading England from disaster to disaster. The latest shame and scandal which their cowardice has inflicted, bring the country by no means to the end of its humiliations.

In a leading article on Saturday morning the *Pall Mall Gazette* said that England, although opposed to the annexation of Egypt, would be under the necessity of exercising absolute authority over that country for the next five or ten years. The exigencies of the present crisis demanded immediate action, and further delay on the part of England to assume control would be nothing less than criminal.

Mr. Bradlaugh on Monday appeared at the table in the House of Commons and administered the oath to himself. He was ordered to withdraw until the House had considered his case. Mr. Gladstone made no motion, whereupon Sir Stafford Northcote moved that Mr. Bradlaugh be not permitted to take the oath. This motion was carried by a vote of 280 to 167. Another motion, made by Sir Stafford Northcote, that Mr. Bradlaugh be excluded from the precincts of the House, was carried by a vote of 228 to 120. Mr. Bradlaugh voted on both motions. The law officers of the Government were instructed to prosecute Mr. Bradlaugh immediately for voting in the House. He is liable to an aggregate penalty of £1,500. On Tuesday he applied for and was granted the Chiltern Hundreds, which is equivalent to a resignation. On motion of Mr. Labouchere, the House granted a new writ for an election to fill the vacancy, and Mr. Bradlaugh immediately started for his constituency at Northampton.

A Conservative moved in the House of Commons on Thursday evening that a measure to prevent the importation of animals suffering from foot and mouth disease be introduced without delay. Mr. Gladstone would not give it precedence over the great measures mentioned in the speech from the throne. The motion was rejected, 251 to 200. Mr. Parnell on Friday moved an amendment condemning the Government policy in Ireland. Mr. Trevelyan replied, and the debate was adjourned.

The trial of the fifty-two members of the Park Club, London, charged with gambling in playing baccarat at the rooms of the club, was concluded on Thursday. The proprietor of the Club and the members of the Committee were fined £500 each and the players £100 each. An appeal from this decision was lodged.

Sir Edward Mortimer Archibald died in London on Friday at the age of seventy-three. For many years he was British Consul-General with headquarters in New York city.

Thomas Chenery, editor of the London *Times* since 1877, died on Monday, at the age of fifty-eight. He was a distinguished Oriental scholar and the author of various literary and political works.

Queen Victoria's new book, which is a disconnected diary of events from August 21, 1862, to September, 1882, was distributed to the press in London on Monday. A number of extracts from it were immediately telegraphed to this country. The entire book is devoted to domestic and family affairs, political allusions being only incidental. There are many feeling allusions to the faithfulness of her late personal attendant, John Brown.

The Parisian newspapers are indulging in much sarcasm at the failure of England's Egyptian policy. An Irish paper congratulates the False Prophet on his success.

Official despatches from Tonquin, received in Paris on Friday, announced that the rebels in the provinces of Namdinh and Sontay had been dispersed with heavy losses. The rebel leader Dedoc was wounded, and more than 400 of his followers were slain.

Admiral Courbet has written to Admiral Peyron, French Minister of Marine, bitterly complaining of being superseded by General Millot in the command of the French forces in Tonquin, just as he is about to attack Bac-ninh.

A despatch from the French Bishop in Tonquin was published in Paris on Monday to the effect that one priest, twenty-two catechists, and 215 Christians had been massacred, and that 108 mission-houses had been destroyed. The affair turns out to have been an old one.

The negotiations of Admiral Galiber, the French commander, with the Malagasy have been resumed, and there is a prospect that they will be concluded successfully. Meantime the Admiral has been recalled.

A letter from Gaboon, dated December 7, asserts that the expedition of M. de Brazza in Africa is a complete failure, his stores have been ruined, a hostile chief is in his way, and Brazzaville no longer exists. Stanley is triumphant. Later French advices deny the story.

The funeral of M. Rouher, the distinguished Bonapartist, in Paris on Thursday was very quiet. Many policemen were present, but no demonstration was made.

The Pope has addressed an encyclical letter to the French bishops. His Holiness deprecates the moral and intellectual condition of the various European nations, including France. He exhorts the bishops to do their utmost to remedy the evil.

The Pope and the Cardinals have decided to address a note to the Powers, pointing out the consequences to the Church which will result from the conversion of the real property of the Propaganda into Italian rentes, as ordered by the courts.

It is denied that coolness has arisen between the Vatican and Prussia. Negotiations are still continuing.

The select Committee of the Austrian Reichsrath appointed recently to consider the extraordinary measures adopted by the Government for Vienna and other places in view of recent Socialist disturbances, approves of these measures provided they shall be limited in their application to Anarchists. If the Reichsrath refuses to reenact the Anti-Socialist law a dissolution is probable.

United States Minister Foster and the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs on Sunday signed the protocol maintaining the commercial treaty concluded with the preceding Spanish Cabinet, with the exception of the consular dues, which are reserved for ratification by the Cortes.

The Spanish Government prohibited the meeting of the Republicans which had been announced to take place on February 11. This was to be in commemoration of the proclamation of the republic, which occurred on February 11, 1873.

A revolt has broken out in Crete in consequence of the Turkish attack on the privileges of the Greek Patriarch. The Porte has sent orders to despatch 500 soldiers to Crete.

Mount Etna is now in a state of eruption.

The death of Cetewayo, the famous Zulu Chief, was reported on Saturday from South Africa.

Advices from Cape Coast Castle, West Africa, of January 14, state that the King of Kintabo had assembled troops to resist the Anglo-French Commission for marking the boundaries of the west coast. The English Commissioner had sent for assistance, and French men-of-war were landing troops.

The bodies of De Long and other *Jeanette* victims were shipped from Hamburg on Wednesday for America.

THE TELEGRAPH AND THE GOVERNMENT.

MR. GARDINER G. HUBBARD made on Friday a very strong presentation of the case for the postal telegraph before the Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads. He told again the now familiar story of the way in which the Western Union has been built up by the absorption of competing lines, and drew from it the inference that the telegraph can never be anything but a monopoly; that the greatest company is sure to swallow up as many small ones as may be started. His plan is to have the Government assume the telegraphic business as a part of the postal service, and he would not agree to make any compensation to the Western Union for the destruction of its monopoly, in spite of the Act of 1866, under which the companies, in return for certain privileges, conceded the right of the Government to purchase their lines. Mr. Hubbard's doctrine is not that "innocent stockholders" are not entitled to compensation when the Government takes away their business, but that the stockholders of the Western Union are not entitled to compensation because none of them are "innocent," and because the lines of the company have not been built by the contributions of the stockholders. All the additions made to the 75,000 miles of wire which the company had in 1866 have, he says, been paid for by the public. Those who purchased stock, he says, since this, have associated themselves with the "guilty," and are guilty themselves, and ought not to have any compensation.

We believe, for our own part, that every argument which has ever been used in favor of the carriage of letters by the Government can be used now in favor of Government telegraphy, besides some additional ones, suggested by the management of the Western Union. But both the discussion of the matter and the legislation about it ought to be governed by purely business considerations. Nothing can be more dangerous than attempts to deal with such questions on moral grounds. We do not think any stockholder of the Western Union would have a right to complain if the Government started a rival telegraphic line to-morrow. Every stockholder bought his stock subject to the risk of competition from any quarter, public or private, and must have known that he so bought it. The extent to which the Government shall undertake to serve the public, either in the transmission of messages or in any other way, is something which must always be determined by the interest or convenience of the whole people, and not of any portion of the people. If, in assuming any work or function, its rivalry causes loss to anybody, it owes him no compensation unless it takes his property. If it took the Western Union lines, it would have to pay the stockholders a just compensation; but if it simply started competing lines, it would owe them nothing, and ought not to give them anything whatever.

This distinction is plain enough, and it is the only distinction the case admits of. There are not in the eye of the law, and ought not to be in the eye of Congress, any "guilty" stockholders of the Western Union. There is

nobody connected with it who ought either to receive or be deprived of any pay, or reward, or indemnity from the State because he is either good or bad, or because he acquired his property or uses it in a manner which moralists disapprove, or which some people think less favorable to the public interest than it ought to be. No man in America is for legislative or judicial purposes "guilty" whom the law has not found guilty. King John established this principle clearly when, six centuries ago, he agreed not to go or send upon anybody, or molest him in any manner whatsoever, except through the law of the land and the legal judgment of his peers.

The matter is worth attention because there is a growing tendency to settle or attempt to settle purely business questions on vague moral grounds. During the strike of the telegraphic operators last summer, a great many people and some journals produced the extraordinary doctrine that an employer whom the public considered unscrupulous or grasping ought to pay higher wages than other people, and that his books ought to be overhauled by a committee to see whether his profits would not enable him to do so. There is now a bill before the United States Senate which gravely proposes to seize the whole property of the Mormon Church, and lodge it in the hands of Government trustees, because the country disapproves of the views of the Mormons about the sexual relation. Nay, the same bill proposes to abolish a Mormon Missionary Society and confiscate its property, because some of the converts on their arrival here are likely to commit adultery. As long as the stockholders of the Western Union, from Gould down, have not violated the law of the land, we have no right to discriminate against them as regards their property rights, in any legislation whatever, no matter how much we may disapprove of their methods. If any telegraphic company would be entitled to compensation for Government competition, they are; if no telegraphic company would be entitled to it, they are not. Their mode of getting their stock ought not to affect the question in any way. It would be a dark day for many good men if people's title to their property became dependent on their popularity, or on the view taken by the newspapers of their moral condition.

THE PUBLISHERS AND COPYRIGHT.

THE *Evening Post* publishes Mr. Dorsheimer's international copyright bill as amended and reported to the House, together with a letter to Mr. Dorsheimer from Mr. George Haven Putnam, of this city, setting forth the views of his house on the subject. We wish very much that his example were likely to be generally followed, for it is now nearly certain that the measure will be defeated, if at all, by the publishing interest. The House Judiciary Committee are unanimous in its favor, the views of the President have been presumably expressed by the recent letter of Mr. Frelinghuysen, there have been no symptoms of any public disapproval in the press; but all this, it is well known, does not settle the matter. We learn privately from Washington that "pressure"

is already making itself felt in the House, and that more is threatened later in the Senate, in order to kill the bill by hampering it with restrictions designed to protect American book manufacturers: requirements that the book shall be totally remanufactured in this country, or assigned to an American citizen, etc., etc. This is, of course, nothing but the old plan of mixing up the two questions of property and protection for the benefit of the American publisher, and it cannot be done except by means which more or less directly encourage piracy. They all make copyright dependent upon the favor of a publisher, and by this we mean that they do not protect the author till he can get some publisher to come between him and the pirates. In the case of books by well-known authors, books sure to sell themselves, there would be no difficulty in getting this protection. English publishers would rival each other in offering it to the American author, and *vice versa*. But in the case of all the new books by unknown men—the great mass of books—forcing the author to select a foreign publisher is requiring him to get from a third person the protection which the Government itself ought to afford. Combined, as this requirement was in the old Harper treaty, with another, making it necessary for him to obtain the protection of the publisher within a limited time, it seemed to many people to put a positive premium on piracy. However this may have been, copyright means the right of the author to sell copies of his book, no matter who prints or manufactures it; and to say that he shall enjoy his property if he can get an American or an English publisher to print it, is nearly as gross a piece of favoritism to publishers and legislation for their benefit as if the publishers who might reprint were named in the bill. Everybody would perceive this at once if an attempt were made to protect the copyright in particular books in this way. If Congress, for instance, were to pass a law that Tennyson might have an American copyright provided his books were put into the hands of either the Harpers or the Appletons in this city within six months, or if the English Parliament were to pass an act granting copyright to Mr. Longfellow's heirs, on similar terms, the measure would be seen to be a private bill for the benefit of the publishers. But the fact that the books and the firms are not named in the act makes no substantial difference.

Under these circumstances it seems to be a positive duty for all the great publishers to come out and say distinctly whether they are in favor of simple author's copyright or not. On this point we cannot agree with Mr. Putnam's suggestion that "it may be necessary, in order to head off some of the opposition to copyright," to make some concessions to "the protectionists." The "protectionists," it should be remembered, are either publishers who believe substantially in the scheme embodied in the Harper treaty, of making remanufacture here a condition of copyright, or else they are mere pirates, who, finding that the cry of "cheap books" no longer serves their turn, are now making a cry for protection to American industry a cover for their business.

There are two fatal objections to this plan. It has been tried once and broken down, and, besides this, the moment any attempt is made to "head off" some of the opposition to the bill by concessions, it gives a plausible reason for every book publisher, binder, printer, and pirate to run on to Washington and demonstrate to Congress that what his branch of business needs is this or that little device—a little change in the period of time here, a slight alteration in the tariff there, and so on until the bill is reduced to the condition of the Harper treaty, as explained by Mr. Frelinghuysen, in which absolutely nothing can be done with it. The moment, too, that the American publishers are let in, English and Canadian publishers must be heard, for their business and their copyright law are affected; and so the result of attempting to "head off" opposition will be to get the whole subject into precisely the confusion from which the present amendment is designed to rescue it. We trust that the Copyright League will not allow themselves to be misled into trying to harmonize their views with the "protectionists." We fear that they will find themselves, if they do, in the position of dupes, and that their league will be covered with ridicule. Let "the protectionists" keep hard at work at the tariff, where they have a great field and plenty of favor. The right to own a book has nothing to do with protection or free trade.

ONE CAUSE OF EXCESSIVE LEGISLATION.

A COLLECTION of opinions as to biennial Legislatures brought out in an argument before a Massachusetts committee, has just been published. They come from impartial witnesses, and most of them from Governors of States, who have in the course of every session to pass the crop of statutes produced by their Legislatures under critical review, and who in this matter are real experts. They all go to show the same thing—and the point is one upon which there seems to be, outside of Legislatures immediately affected, no difference of opinion—that a session of a Legislature once every two years is all that any State needs. In those States which have adopted this system there is a considerable saving of money; but the most remarkable point in the evidence is that in all the reports in which the subject is specifically referred to, it appears that the actual volume of legislation has been enormously reduced by the introduction of biennial sessions, proving conclusively that the annual meeting of the Legislature is itself a marked cause of unnecessary additions to the laws. That legislation on subjects of general interest is needed in every State from time to time is, of course, not to be disputed; but the question is, How much more do we get than we actually need?—and the results of the change from biennial to annual sessions throw new light upon it. It appears, in fact, that if the Legislature meets every other year, instead of the two years' harvest of statutes being twice as large a crop as the old annual yield, it is a very much smaller one. The Secretary of State of Delaware, for instance, declares that "the amount of legislation is

very much less"; in Kansas the Governor says that the change has had the effect of "greatly reducing the amount of legislation"; in Florida "the amount of legislation has been reduced fully sixty per cent."; in Alabama "the reduction of legislation is about one-half," each biennial session "doing about as much as had been done at each annual session"; in Nevada there is "a saving of at least one-half in volume of legislation."

This evidence has an important bearing on the biennial amendment now pending at Albany. It shows that it will not do for any one who opposes biennial sessions to urge that they may do well enough for small, thinly settled, half-rural States, but would never answer in great commercial communities like New York or Massachusetts, where the volume of business which legislation affects is so much larger; for it is clear that one great cause of excessive legislation is the mere fact of convening the Legislature. All our State Legislatures are made out of very much the same material; and if the Florida or the Kansas Legislature makes half the business for itself when it meets once in two years that it does if it meets every year, we may feel very confident that a biennial session at Albany would show a similar decrease.

It must have occurred to many people who have looked into the question at all closely, to ask, Why need our State Legislatures meet even once in two years? Is not once in three years often enough, or even once in four? The Governor of Texas goes so far as to predict that twenty five years from now a session once in four years will be found quite enough. He says:

"The great advantage of the system, apart from the saving of the expense, is, that it gives time for laws to be tried before they are repealed, and also tends to prevent excessive legislation. In fact, when we get to be twenty-five years older, my opinion is that a session once in four years would be even better, as it would increase the care with which changes would be made in a system of State laws when once well established, and prevent hasty and inconsiderate legislation."

It would be rash to say how far reform ought to go in this direction. Legislatures, in any popular government, must meet at certain intervals, but the chief reasons for the original introduction of frequent sessions—jealousy and dread of the Executive and confidence in the representative body as a guardian of popular rights against it—have long ceased to exist. Nobody, for instance, in New York, dreads the Governor; everybody dreads the Legislature. In fact, so far from relying upon Major Haggerty and Mr. Husted and their like to protect us against Governor Cleveland, we rely on his veto to protect us against their work, and we elect him with a view to this, and give him a good salary and a fine house and a long term, in order that he may save us from as many of their laws as possible. Even the Legislature's power over taxes in our States, once relied upon to save the public from encroachments of the Executive, now often becomes an instrument of oppression and corruption, and nobody wants to see it in operation any oftener than possible. So that really we may say without exaggeration that most

people would look forward to a total cessation of law-making at Albany for a period of four years as a sort of Utopia. Nor can there be much doubt that, with less frequent sessions, more attention would be paid to the character of the members chosen when the election came off, so that we should not only get less but better legislation. Meanwhile the immediate problem before us is how to get less; and that this will be effected by the simple device of calling the Legislature together less often, does not admit of a doubt.

EGYPT IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

THE news of Baker Pasha's defeat evidently greatly increases the Tory exasperation over the collapse of the debate on the address. This debate on the address to the Queen, in answer to her message at the opening of Parliament, is one of those annual parades which have become a settled tradition of the House of Commons, although they hardly ever serve any purpose beyond enabling one or two new members to make maiden speeches, and giving the Opposition an opportunity of freeing their minds on the state of the country generally, in the style of the Saturday debates on the state of the Union in the House of Representatives in Washington. One of the odd illustrations of the strength of such traditions in England is to be found in the fact that, although a debate on the address is always set on foot by the Opposition, and, in fact, is raised by an Opposition amendment, the Opposition considers it the duty of the Ministry to see to its being carried on for a reasonable length of time, or, in other words, to provide speakers to keep the ball rolling, even if the enemy has nothing, or appears to have nothing, to say. The collapse of the debate on Tuesday week was due to the refusal or neglect of the Ministers to discharge this somewhat ridiculous duty any longer. They apparently, in fact, declined to treat it as serious business, or to give any special attention to it, and the Conservatives, being utterly unprepared for this change of policy, had no speakers ready either; those who should have been on hand to draw attention to the rapidly approaching ruin of the country under its present rulers, being probably at dinner parties or the opera.

If the debate, however, had only been protracted for another day, Baker Pasha's defeat would have come in to give it life and animation, by supplying a very attractive Tory illustration of the wickedness and folly of the Gladstonian policy in Egypt. It would appear, however, that the Ministers are not in the smallest degree affected by what has occurred, as regards what is to be done in the Sudan. The reason of this is that the military movements in that region which they have either sanctioned or permitted, have not for their object, as many people both here and in England have supposed, the reconquest of the country, or the overthrow of the Mahdi, but the withdrawal of the garrisons along the Blue and White Nile, or, in other words, the evacuation of the whole country except a small region around Khartum. The horror of the situation in the Sudan consists in the fact that there are scattered at various points in it garrisons of

Egyptian troops, separated from Egypt proper, or from the Red Sea, by deserts over two hundred miles wide, which cannot, under the most favorable circumstances, be traversed by troops without great difficulty and the aid of a large number of camels. These garrisons the rebels have cooped up and refuse to allow to withdraw peacefully, and make no secret of their intention to massacre them if they surrender.

What Baker Pasha has been trying to do is to organize a force capable of relieving at least one of them, and striking enough terror to enable him to make terms for the rest. It is for this purpose, too, that General Gordon has been trying to get to Khartum. Neither of them is seeking to reconquer the revolted provinces, or, indeed, wants to do any fighting at all if it can be helped. The experiment which Baker was trying was whether the Egyptians could be got to face the rebels under a new and plucky commander, with a large allowance of European officers. But he has totally failed. The Egyptians will not, it appears, fight the Arabs on any terms, and will not fight even for their lives against a very inferior force—a degree of pusillanimity which we believe no race in the world has hitherto shown. Even when they know they will be killed if they surrender, they throw down their arms and submit to be butchered on their knees. One of the garrisons which Baker was trying to relieve was that of Sinkat, in which Tewfik Bey has been maintaining a hopeless resistance for some weeks. He recently tried to cut his way out to the coast, but has been surrounded and has perished with his whole force. The effect of these successes on the tribes has been so great that General Gordon will have done wonders if he reach Khartum.

All this in one way simplifies the situation for the Ministry; in another way it complicates it. It closes the mouths of those who have been denouncing them for obliging Egypt to give up the Sudan, by showing beyond peradventure that Egypt is utterly unable either to hold or reconquer it, as she has no men capable of doing either. Those who still clamor for the retention of those provinces must be prepared to impose the job on either the Indian or the British armies. As yet only a very few Jingoos have been found bold enough to propose anything of the kind. In fact, the use of European troops in that climate is out of the question.

On the other hand, the disaster will probably compel the Ministry to take some more decided attitude with regard to the government of Egypt proper. The breakdown in the Sudan has destroyed at home and abroad all hope of converting the Khedive into a respectable and strong ruler. Even the northern country papers in England are beginning to ask for a more organized and settled interference in Egyptian affairs. What shape that should take has now to be decided, and it is not easy to decide. Should the Khedive be kept up at all, even as a sham ruler? Should the Government still be a native Government under English supervision, as in some of the native States of India; or should it be direct English administration, as in the annexed provinces?—are questions which must

be answered this spring, and they are very difficult.

THE FEATHER-DUSTER.

ALL the great modern historians teach us that one of the most important keys to a comprehension of the development of any society is a knowledge of the changes gradually introduced in its ordinary social and domestic existence. If the true history, for instance, of indoor life could be written, from its beginning in the damp, ill-furnished, and badly lighted cave of early times, down to the modern parlor, with its dry floor, abundant windows, easy chairs, and all its other appliances for comfort and convenience, we should have an epitome of human progress. The old way of writing history—that of making it a monotonous succession of kings and queens, or a dreary record of battles, murders, and sudden deaths—has been abandoned for the new method of giving a panorama of the national life. This method is now perceived to be peculiarly adapted to America, because we have no kings and queens, very rare wars, and few great commanders, and our Presidents are apt to be quite as commonplace as if they sat on a throne and wore an old-gold crown; besides which they hold office for a fixed term, while kings' and queens' reigns have always one interest, arising from the fact that no one knows certainly in advance when they will go out of office.

In the United States we may accordingly expect that the new system of writing history will meet with great favor, and that in future historians will devote themselves to giving us a picture of the life of the people, instead of confining themselves, as they used to do, to the biographies of politicians. Every newspaper tries to do this more or less from day to day, and we feel that we are only discharging a public duty in calling attention to one feature of our national life which calm and thoughtful observers have hitherto entirely overlooked. We refer to dust. The moment we pause to think of it, we see, of course, that dust is a matter of peculiar interest to Americans. The country may fairly claim to contain more dust in proportion to its population and superficial area than any in the European world. It is the only country in which during several months in the year the traveller (and all Americans are travellers) is met on his arrival at a hotel by a whisk-broom, and has difficulty in entering his name on the register, owing to the vigor with which he is dusted from head to foot, or in which the broom is again applied to him as he leaves. The curious slang use of the word in this country as an equivalent for the verb to go, to leave, to depart suddenly, as in the well-known line,

"I got up and I immediately dusted."

cannot be overlooked. For this is not mere negro-minstrel language. It was only the other day that a cow-boy, who had occasion to adjourn a convention of cattle kings in Texas, did it by covering them with a pair of revolvers, and quietly saying, "You just get up and dust," which they immediately did. "I'll dust your clothes for you," used threateningly, is a phrase the meaning of which no one to whom it has been addressed has ever been known to

mistake. That English travellers have never noticed this is all the more remarkable because England is a notoriously damp country, in which dust has had little effect on the national customs or speech. Shakspeare speaks of "dusty death," as if to any Englishman the idea of dust would make death additionally disagreeable; and Ruskin's 'Ethics of the Dust' was never a popular work in England, no doubt partly because of the unfamiliarity of the topic.

The United States is, in fact, the home of dust, and we should naturally expect that it would also be the home of all sorts of inventions and appliances for protection against and removal of dust. The linen duster and the whisk broom do undoubtedly play a most important part in hotel and railroad life. If we all lived in corridors, sleeping-cars, and hotels, there would be little cause for complaint; but, strangely enough, in the simple, familiar domestic function of dusting, we have introduced an implement which we teach or allow our servants to use in a manner that, in a dusty country, may fairly be called inexplicable.

Where the feather-duster came from originally, unless it was Africa, we do not know. The negro is fond of feathers, and in his native country applies them to their true purpose—that of display or ornamentation and parade—precisely the same use that is made of them with us by women at balls, weddings, and the opera. Stuck jauntily in the hair, they arouse among the Africans, just as they do at the Metropolitan Opera-house, the rage and envy of one, and the fancy and favor of the other race. For purposes of state they magnify the office and simple costume of the native chief. They serve in all hot countries, also, a useful purpose. By waving them gently, flies and other insects are kept from disturbing the sleep of the nabob, the boss, and the monopolist.

But neither in Africa, nor in India, nor anywhere in the world but the United States, are feathers generally used for purposes of dusting, and this is no doubt the reason why the negro, when engaged in waving the feather-duster before furniture or over bric-à-brac, is apt to show so many unmistakable signs of inward enjoyment; the thought that his white master should be so ignorant as to use feathers for such a purpose repaying the humorous fellow for centuries of servitude and wrong imposed upon others of his race. But the feather-duster in the hands of the African is not so strange a thing as the same implement in the hands of the Irish house-servant. Before the invention of the feather-duster, every American house-keeper knows that the object of the important function of dusting was considered to be the removal of dust. For this purpose, what the artists call the smooth "surfaces" were carefully wiped with a cloth, brushing being used only for such as could not be wiped. Waving was never resorted to at all. It was, too, the great object of the old fashioned housekeeper to have as few surfaces not easily wiped as possible, and she waged for many years a brave, though losing, battle against plush, velvet, covers for mantelpieces, and inaccessible lambrequins,

solely on the ground that they could not easily be dusted. When the tide became too strong for her, and all these innovations became common, however, what we should have expected was that the art of dusting would be brought to a higher pitch of perfection. On the contrary, it was just about this time that the feather-duster gained its hold upon us as a nation, and the practice of wiping and removing the dust disappeared altogether. With a feather-duster the dust is, of course, not removed. Waving feathers at the objects on the mantelpiece or over the chairs, as the inventor, of course, knew, raises the dust, which then settles again without any diminution in quantity. Yet it is this habit of waving that we are cultivating among our servants, with the natural results among persons who neither understand nor care for the historical connection between waving and dusting. We complain of them because in waving they frequently strike and break the objects intrusted to their care. But how can we complain if servants misunderstand the use of such an implement when we cannot ourselves explain it to them? The duster, consequently, is doing a silent but awful work in unnecessarily demoralizing a class whom we pretend to feel the need of improving in every way. We can all remember a time when our houses were well dusted: it was when we had no feather-duster. Cannot its use be stopped by a heavy tax, or a statute making its employment a misdemeanor? What has it done for us to entitle it to honor or respect?

ENGLISH OPINION ON EGYPT.

LONDON, January 15.

FOREIGN troubles and entanglements are never wanting to England, even when she is ruled by a Minister more anxious than any of his predecessors to keep out of them; and among these there is none which has spread more general disquietude than the position of the British Government in Egypt, and its relations to that country. Those among the Liberals who most dislike our interference attribute it to the conduct of Lord Beaconsfield's Government when they joined in the deposition of the late Khedive Ismail, and, in conjunction with France, established that system of financial supervision which went by the name of the Dual Control. But the truth is that interference in Egyptian affairs is an old established part of English policy, in which every ministry has borne more or less part since the days when we drove the French out of Egypt after Napoleon's departure. For many years after that time we always had a "policy" in every part of the Turkish and Arab East; and the lower valley of the Nile became a still more important district in our eyes after the opening of the overland route to India across the Delta to Suez and thence down the Red Sea. The making of the Suez Canal increased the interest of our people there, because it now became not merely a route for passengers, but a great highway for commerce, and one used by English ships more than by those of all other nations put together. Lord Beaconsfield's Government were therefore following in the old lines when they set up the Dual Control, novel and objectionable as that arrangement was in many of its details. When Mr Gladstone came into power, and began to extricate the country from complications in other quarters, he did not attempt to retire from Egypt, and when the crisis of 1882 came

upon that country in the form of the military movement headed by Arabi, the expedition which destroyed the forts at Alexandria and scattered the Egyptian army at Tell el-Kebir was the natural, almost the necessary consequence of the protecting and controlling position which England had taken up. Thirty years ago there would probably have been no compunction at, and little opposition to, such an expedition among the English people. But men's minds have greatly changed in England as regards foreign interventions. The aggressive character of the Disraeli foreign policy disgusted the mass of the people with military enterprises and annexations. England is more democratic than she then was, and both in the middle and the humbler classes there is a greater aversion to war, to annexations, to whatever bears the appearance of checking the free growth and self-guided development of any nationality. Mr Gladstone himself is deeply penetrated by these sentiments, and it must have cost him a considerable struggle to agree to the despatch of Sir Garnet Wolseley's force.

The expedition of 1882 was due to three causes. The first was the anxiety of the mercantile interests on the subject of the Suez Canal, whose stoppage seemed to them likely to result from the success of Arabi and the anarchy which they feared would follow. The second was the existence of various treaties and engagements which bound us to Egypt and in particular to the maintenance of the Khedive Tewfik, whom we had joined in setting up in place of his father Ismail. The third was the idea that the welfare of the Christians of the East generally was involved in the exertion of English influence and authority, and that our retirement from Egypt would be understood by the Mohammedan world as an abandonment of our coreligionists. Owing to these three currents of opinion, the second of which was that which mainly determined the conduct of the Executive, Egypt was occupied and Tewfik reinstated on his throne. There was, however, a significant opposition to the expedition in England itself—an opposition more important in the country than in the House of Commons, where only a small section of the more advanced Liberals voted against the grant of money for the military and naval expenses. Partly to appease this opposition, partly to disarm the jealousy of foreign Powers, and doubtless also to satisfy their own consciences, the leading members of the Ministry declared in the most emphatic manner that England went to Egypt with no purposes of self-aggrandizement, and least of all with any views of annexation. Our mission was merely to quell a military revolt, reestablish order, reinstate Tewfik, promote the well-being of the cruelly-oppressed Egyptian peasantry. It was announced that our troops would remain no longer than these objects required, and that our chief aim would be to create self-governing institutions under which the social and intellectual, as well as material, development of the country might peaceably advance. Nobody in England doubts that these declarations were sincere. They expressed Mr Gladstone's long-settled views and wishes. The main object of his foreign policy has been to limit our responsibilities and the sphere of our political action, and there is no charge so often or so warmly brought against him as that of being indifferent to the glory of Great Britain and the greatness of her empire. But, however sincere in his mouth, these declarations were but coldly received. The imperialist party at home have made no secret of their desire to see Egypt annexed by us, or at least controlled under the form of a protectorate. They were therefore displeased by the announcement that

after conquering the country we were going to withdraw from it, and complained that the results of Tell el-Kebir were being thrown away. The Radical party, or rather the anti-imperialist section of it, were not appeased. They doubted if it would be possible to retire, insisting that we had taught Tewfik and his ministers to lean upon us, and that the fabric we were trying to erect would crumble as soon as our military support was withdrawn. In France, Germany, and Italy our professions of disinterestedness were received with incredulity or ridicule. England is still *perfidie Albion* to the ordinary French politician, whose ignorance of the forces that move English politics is inconceivable; and it was believed that we meant to hold Egypt, and were only trying to lull the suspicions of our neighbors by hypocritical words and acts, bringing back some of our troops, but keeping enough at Cairo to make our grip secure.

In the winter of 1882 Lord Dufferin, our Ambassador at Constantinople, was sent to Egypt to report on the condition of things. He drew up a plan for the establishment of a system of constitutional government, with representative institutions and local councils. It was hoped that by these means the abuses of power might be checked, and the people trained to self-government. That these hopes have been as yet little realized need excite no surprise, for such processes of training must be slow. But the inherent difficulties of our position in Egypt, as really responsible for its administration and policy, while externally and nominally nothing more than friendly advisers of its sovereign, have been brought to a head by the troubles in the Sudan. Shortly before and during the reign of Ismail, the authority of Egypt was extended over a vast tract along the upper waters of the Nile, a tract inhabited by black races, many of which have been converted to Mohammedanism, and in which the slave trade has long flourished. That authority was always precarious, being supported by an army small in proportion to the size of the territory, and of the worst quality. It has now, as everybody knows, been overtaken by the victories of one of those prophets claiming a divine commission who frequently appear in Mohammedan countries. The Khedive's Ministers, when they heard of his exploits, sent against him the force lately destroyed at El Obeid, and, after that catastrophe, proposed to make fresh efforts to reconquer the country. Here, however, their British advisers, who had not approved of the preceding expedition, stepped in and warned them not to attempt to regain the Sudan. Their resignation was followed by the installation of the present ministry of Nubar Pasha, who is understood to be acting in accord with the representative of England. We have thus been forced to assume the direction of Egyptian policy in a very important matter, just at the time when it was expected, some months ago, that our troops would be leaving the country.

Nor is this all. The defeat of the Egyptian army at El Obeid having left the country at the mercy of the Mahdi or such armed bands as ravage it on their own account, the Egyptian officials and traders, and the Europeans of all races and conditions who had quartered themselves in the Sudan, have taken refuge in Khartoum, the centre of Egyptian rule, at the confluence of the Blue with the White Nile. In the presence of superior hostile forces, and separated by wide deserts from Upper Egypt and from the Red Sea, the garrison cannot long maintain itself in this position. As soon as the news of the Mahdi's victories reached Cairo, vigorous steps should have been taken either to reinforce it and win back the surrounding country, or else, if the evacuation of the whole Sudan had

been resolved on, to send such succors as would enable the garrison to reach the Red Sea coast with the non-combatants under its escort. However, the Egyptian ministry was too feeble and irresolute to do anything effective, while the English Government has hung back from committing itself either to a supersession of Egyptian authority or to warlike operations of its own. To despatch an English expedition into the heart of Africa would not only involve serious expense, but would seem like the beginning of a new policy of conquest in that quarter. If we spend men and money in reconquering territory for Egypt, or even in rescuing her troops, we shall be all the more pressed to remain on the Nile, and indemnify ourselves by retaining authority there. If our first expedition meets with a check, we shall be told that the honor of the British flag requires us to despatch larger forces and inflict a crushing defeat. And any action whatever will be contrary to the professions with which we started, that we were going to leave the Egyptians to manage their own affairs. These considerations have kept Mr. Gladstone's Ministry quiescent. But the country has grown impatient, and several of the leading organs of public opinion have kept urging them to take the matter into their own hands. They have at last so far yielded as to despatch General Gordon, well known for his exploits in China during the Tae-Ping war, and since then for his administration of the Sudan itself as the representative of the Khedive; and as he refused to go out under Egyptian orders, they have sent him as their own servant. Much anxiety is felt as to the fate of Khartum. If the fugitives there make good their escape to the coast, the present clouds may blow over. But if the people in Khartum should be cut off, that disaster would be charged on the Cabinet, not only by its enemies, but by some who are now its friends, and would damage it in the eyes both of Europe generally and of the English public. And in any case, the difficulty of either staying in Egypt or abandoning it remains. If we stay, we seem to belie our professions, we assume a considerable responsibility, we make ultimate retirement more and more difficult. If we withdraw, we leave everything to anarchy, and should be told it would have been better never to go at all. Of that part of our politicians (probably a majority) who wish to leave, there are few who think we could do so now, and not many who think we shall during the present generation. Meanwhile the Opposition are well pleased, because they not only count on seeing the Ministry discredited by the disappointment of its hopes for retiring from Egypt, but they reserve to themselves, when they next come into power, the pleasure of taking the more decided course of assuming a permanent protectorate, which will easily slide into annexation. Y.

VATEL AND THE PLEIAD.

PARIS, January 17, 1884.

THERE are two societies of bibliophiles in Paris. One, the old and renowned Société des Bibliophiles Français, is composed of the greatest amateurs—such men as the Duc d'Aumale, M. de Lignerolles (who has one of the finest collections of books known), Baron Fichon, the President of the Society, who has spent a life in making collections of all kinds, M. de la Béraudière, Baron de Lacarelle, the Duc de la Trémoille, etc. There is a younger society, called the Société des Amis des Livres, which has only been in existence for a few years, much more modest in its aspirations and particularly devoted to modern literature. The Amis des Livres leave to the Bibliophiles the old Aldine

editions, the incunabula, the monuments of the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries, even the serious works of the seventeenth century. Most of its members have only collected the charming editions of the eighteenth century, illustrated by Elsen, Cochin, Moreau le Jeune, Gravelot; and they are now collecting the original editions of the "Romantics" of the nineteenth century. They have issued some editions of the Romantics, which are already very much sought after. The 'Chronicle of the Time of Charles IX.,' by Prosper Mérimée, Mürger's 'Vie de Bohème,' 'Fortunio,' by Théophile Gautier, Victor Hugo's 'Orientales,' Balzac's 'Eugénie Grandet.' These editions are illustrated by the best artists of the present time; the Amis des Livres are and profess to remain very modern.

The Bibliophiles also make publications from time to time, but these have quite a different character. I have before me 'La Suite des Œuvres poétiques de Vatel,' reproduced in facsimile from the original manuscript under the auspices of the Society of French Bibliophiles. The work is truly magnificent; but who is this Vatel, and what is the history of this precious manuscript? We read in the Catalogue of the Library of the Duc de la Vallière (1784), one of the largest and finest libraries formed in France during the last century: "No. 3283. La Suite des Œuvres poétiques de Vatel," 8vo, etc., a manuscript enriched with drawings and ornaments painted with the greatest care in *encre de Chine*, and dedicated to M. de Villeroy, Secretary of State. This manuscript was sold for eighty francs at the La Vallière sale, and we find it afterward in the catalogue of the famous bookseller, Renouard, in 1819. The book was bought by M. Cigogne, a stockbroker, a man of consummate taste and knowledge, who, it can be truly said, never bought an indifferent book in his life. He wrote on the margin of his catalogue: "The drawings are in very good taste; they are attributed to Etienne Delaune." All amateurs of art know Delaune and his wonderful little albums of ornaments: he is considered one of the most admirable in this line.

Let us now see who is Vatel. The Duc d'Aumale has written a notice of him as an introduction to the facsimile of the manuscript, which is now in his possession, as he was fortunate enough, at the death of M. Cigogne, to buy his complete library from his heirs. Vatel lived at the time of what we call the Pleiad; he was one of the smallest luminaries of the poetical constellation of the sixteenth century. The fortune of the writers of the Pleiad is somewhat singular: they are alternatively praised or forgotten. At times it would seem as if they were the only fountains of French poetry, and as if all inspiration had died with them; they alone possess imagination, they alone have the divine afflatus; their language is the true French language. After a while comes a reaction, and these same poets are pronounced monotonous, dry, affected; their language is obscure, their horizon is limited; and, with the exception of a few pieces, nothing in their immense work is worth remembering. During these reactions, everybody is ready to say with Boileau, "Enfin, Malherbe vint." Victor Hugo and the Romantics made a violent attack on Boileau and the Classics, and whoever reads Ronsard will easily see how much Hugo has borrowed from him in his poetical work. During the reign of Louis Philippe there was a classic reaction, headed by Ponsard, the author of a tragedy called "Lucrèce," and by Émile Augier, who is still alive. This reaction was not quite vain, as it was helped by such men as Nisard, Villemain, Cousin.

A few years ago, the forgotten poets of the Pleiad came up again, under the influence of the school which we call the Parnassians, or the

stylists—poets who care more for fine words than for ideas—Leconte de Lisle, Théodore de Banville, and a few others. There is hardly a month when Lemerre, the enthusiastic publisher of the new Parnassus, does not publish a volume of poems written for the happy few who delight in *rich* rhymes, and in curious rhythms, and in the mere play of words. The dramatic and lyrical sterility of the new school contrasts curiously with its extreme ability in the mere process of versification. The fact is, that they profess to disdain emotions, passions, as something low, vulgar; they live in the azure, among the stars; they have taken for their models the poets of the Pleiad of the sixteenth century, who were literary jewellers, if I may so express myself.

Vatel is not mentioned in Desportes, nor in Ronsard; only in Baif do we find a mention of him. Baif was one of the most charming of the poets of his time; some of his poems can take rank with the best of Ronsard's and Marot's. He thought well enough of Vatel to address him a piece, which is an invective against a person who had dared to insult a "holy poet." He first calls for Du Bellay, Desportes, Ronsard, and then says:

"O Vatel, ce n'est pas l'injure
Qu'on dit de bouche et qui ne dure
Qu'autant que l'homme est survivant.

Mais, amy, veux-tu bien qu'il meure
Sans éprouver la playe sûre
De tes larmes enflammées,
Qui, poussées de voix furieuse
Contre la beste injurieuse,
Vengeront tes amis blasmes?"

Vatel, as we see here, was a writer of iambs, a satirist, a "redresseur de torts." He was also a royalist, like Ronsard, like Baif—an ardent royalist, like all the poets of the Pleiad. They had no strong religious passions, but they took sides with the King against the Huguenots. The denunciations of the Huguenots by Ronsard are well known. Vatel also deplores the civil wars; he would like to live quietly at Blois, his native town, on his beloved Loire. We learn his history in his poems. His father was a lawyer. He received a good classical education, but he seems to regret not having walked quietly in the footsteps of his father. He was robbed of the paternal acres by some wicked relations, and he tried in vain to get them out of their hands. "The children of Apollo," he says, "are always unhappy." All goes wrong with him. All women are cruel; he is constantly crossed in love. He sends his verses, with the hope of a pension, to the King; to the Duc d'Anjou, the King's brother; even to the secretaries of the King, to his valets, to the financiers of Paris or of the provinces. His efforts were vain. His best friend seems to have been a Swede called Holster, a scientific man and a philosopher, who had, for some reason unknown, fixed his residence in France. Vatel addresses some of his verses to this unknown protector. He addresses, also, some sonnets to a M. de Pesloë, who must have been a person of some importance, as there is a geography of the time dedicated to him.

All the events of which we find traces in the poetical work of Vatel which is now published, are placed between 1569 and the end of 1573. There are allusions to a young Count of Brissac, who was killed during that period; to the death of Claude l'Aubespine; to the marriage of Charles IX. and of Elizabeth of Austria; to the massacre of Saint Bartholomew; to the taking of Santerre. Vatel, like most poets, was a mere echo of the dominant passions of his time, and we find nothing characteristic in his work. His hero was Sebastian of Luxembourg, Viscount of Martigues and Duke of Penthièvre, Colonel-General of the French infantry, and one of the best soldiers of his time, who fought

at the siege of Leith, in Scotland (1560), at the famous battle of Dreux, and in a hundred other places. Vatel addressed to him his best poem. One sonnet is dedicated to "Monsieur le Gast," the great friend of Brantôme, who calls him Du Gua, a great courtier and favorite of the ladies—almost a *mignon*; a brave soldier, who could also write poetry; a friend of Baïf and Ronsard. Du Gua was murdered in his bed on the 1st of November, 1575, by the Baron de Viteaux, also a friend of Brantôme. We find, also, among the persons to whom Vatel addresses his poems, young Timoléon de Cossé, Count of Brissac, who commanded at the age of seventeen the "bandes" of Piedmont. His father, old Marshal Brissac, who had so long had command of the French troops in Italy, had given to his son the name of a hero of Plutarch, and chosen for his preceptor a Scotchman, the well-known Buchanan. There was nothing puritanic in young Timoléon. He was handsome, fond of masquerades and dances; he once danced before the King, to the sound of the lute of Strozzi. Fancy the two old soldiers, Strozzi and Brissac, and this young man, "ayant le menton à peine jauni d'une soie dorée," Vatel. We find, also, a mention in the poems of a relation of Brissac, Artus de Cossé, well known in French history under the name of Gonnor, which is constantly found in the voluminous correspondence of Catherine de Médicis. Gonnor was one of the confidential advisers of the Queen; he was among those who were called the "politiques."

The manuscript itself, ornamented by Delaulne, written with much care, is addressed to the famous Villeroi, who was Minister of four French Kings, and Councillor of Catherine de Médicis as well as of Henri IV. His name belongs to French history. He was a diplomat of the highest eminence, and during the most troubled days of the wars of religion he never lost sight of the permanent interests of his country. He had probably rendered some service to poor Vatel, or Vatel expected to find in him a Mæcenæ; for, even in the sixteenth century, it must have been an expense to make and bind magnificently a large manuscript, and to have it adorned with beautiful miniatures. The facsimile, now published, will some day be looked upon as a great curiosity, as but a few copies have been printed. Delaulne's miniatures have been marvellously imitated; the introduction by the Duc d'Aumale is a facsimile of his own hand-writing.

Correspondence.

THE PRICE OF BOARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am always interested in the articles on the "State of Trade," finances, prices, etc., though, being a woman, perhaps I do not understand them all. Is it too much to ask you to explain in the *Nation* why it is that, in a time of general depression and low prices of many things, the price of board is so high (higher here than two years ago); and why it costs a woman so much more to live than formerly? To say that women dress more extravagantly does not answer the question, for the price of work is higher, and many articles of a woman's dress (most of them I think) remain at the old high rates, provided a good quality is bought.

While I do not suppose that you wish to take up the rôle of adviser, is it yet possible to give any information as to whether there is any safe way of investing small savings other than in the savings banks?

Can you give any account of the Coöperative Loan and Building Associations, such as profess to succeed in Philadelphia, and which apparently enable one to invest small sums of money?—Respectfully,

EMMA G. SHAW.

BOSTON, February 7, 1884.

[If it be true that the price of board is as high in times of general depression like the present, when the prices of commodities at wholesale are confessedly lower than the average, the reason must lie in the fact often adverted to by economists and statisticians, that retail prices do not fall *pari passu* with wholesale. In other words, the butcher and baker and candlestick-maker charge as much in times of depression as in other times. They do not come down until they are forced down. In this respect they act in accordance with a law common to all other traders, of charging all they can get. The force of competition will bring them down eventually, but the force of habit enables them to maintain prices for a time at a higher level than the wholesale markets justify.]

We cannot undertake to give advice regarding the investment of money in either large or small sums.—ED. NATION.]

THE UNITED STATES SINKING FUND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are, constructively, in the United States Sinking Fund, bonds amounting to over \$438,000,000. Of these, about three-fourths appear to be computed as bearing still 6 per cent. interest. Have we not a right to demand that these be "continued" at 3 per cent.? If it is unwise, as many of us believe, to pay off the public debt by the present burdensome taxation so rapidly as we are doing, then any honorable mode of reducing the demands of the Sinking Fund is permissible.—Yours truly, N.

YALE COLLEGE, NEW HAVEN, CONN., February 2, 1884.

[The requirements of the Sinking-Fund Act having been largely exceeded in times past by the bond redemptions of the Treasury, it is permissible to lessen the amount applicable to the payment of the public debt in a variety of ways. "Continuing" the 6 per cent. bonds in the fund at 3 per cent. would, however, be of no avail as a means of lessening the rate of speed, if the Government's income is not shortened, since whatever sum is saved in the way of interest payments accumulates in the Treasury, and can only be released by the redemption of bonds. There are many considerations which point to the desirableness of a less rapid reduction of the debt, but this is not so great an evil that one need lie awake nights thinking of it. There are many rocks ahead more disturbing to a patriot's vision than entire freedom from public debt.—ED. NATION.]

THE NATIONAL BANK CIRCULATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May one who is but imperfectly informed on financial subjects ask of you a question or two?

The present circulation of the national banks is, as I understand it, based on money lent to the United States Treasury, and its redemption

is secured by the deposit with the Treasury of the bonds—that is, of the evidences of that loan. As this loan is repaid to the lenders, the bonds, of course, are cancelled. Why cannot the banks, as the loan is paid off, deposit the specie with the Treasury as a security for their circulation, just as now they deposit the bonds? and what is the objection to their doing so?

Interest I have always understood to be a compensation paid for the use of another man's capital, and most justly paid (pace Mr. Ruskin), since the owner waives the profit he might make by using it himself. So that those who lent money to the Treasury during the war were justly entitled to interest upon the loan until reimbursed, because they had withdrawn that money from other profitable uses. But I fail to see how those who use their capital in banking business can also claim interest on it as a loan, be the interest 10, 6, or 1 per cent.; and I most decidedly object to being compelled, with the rest of the public, to pay interest on capital whose owners are at the same time making profit from it. This may be a solution of the problem hitherto deemed insoluble—how to eat your cake and have your cake; but I prefer that it should not be solved at my expense. B.

THE INCOME TAX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial, in your issue of the 31st ult., under the title "State Taxation," discusses a problem that has sorely vexed the tax gatherers of probably all the States and municipalities in this country, viz.: how to secure a full and complete return of taxable personal property. Your criticism upon the imposition of an income tax as a remedy for the existing evil in that regard seems to me unanswerable, if we do not go deeper into the subject for the purpose of discovering the real cause of failure of the direct tax upon personal property.

There will, of course, always be a number of taxpayers who will, even under oath, make false returns of their personal property or of their income, whatever may be the justice of the system of taxation in vogue; but this perversity of human nature will not account for the alarming extent to which false returns are now made. The real cause for this widespread evil is the inequity of the present system of taxation. It is, I believe, universally the rule, and in some of the States expressly required by their Constitutions, to tax real and personal property at the same rate per cent. on the market or assessed value. This works an injustice to holders of personal property. The average rental of real property yields 10 per cent. gross, while ordinary securities, if they have any fixed income, rarely exceed 6 per cent., and are at present oftener 4 or 5 per cent. The State, county, and city taxes rarely fall below 3 per cent. That would leave but 1 to 3 per cent. income on personal property, while on the real estate 7 per cent. would be left, with only the cost of repairs and insurance, usually not more than 1½ per cent., to be deducted therefrom, in order to ascertain the net income.

If provision were made by the law for this difference in the income usually derived from these two kinds of property—i. e., make the percentage of tax vary with real and personal property in the proportion that the average incomes from them bear to each other—it matters not whether you lay the tax upon the income or directly upon the value of the property, the amount of personal property returned for taxation would be at once materially increased. If, under the present system, a taxpayer returned all his taxable personal property, they would be

ruinous investments and become a drug upon the market.—Yours respectfully.

C. G. TIEDEMAN.

LAW DEPARTMENT, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF MISSOURI, COLUMBIA, MO., Feb. 5, 1884.

Notes.

A. C. ARMSTRONG & SON will shortly publish 'The Principles of Written Discourse,' by Prof. T. W. Hunt, of Princeton College.

The Webster Historical Society, of Boston, announce for immediate publication a pamphlet edition of Judge Chamberlain's address upon John Adams, delivered before that body at its annual meeting on January 18.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, have in press 'Boating Trips on New England Rivers,' by H. Parker Fellows.

The Library of Cornell University for January contains a list of the periodicals in the May Anti-Slavery Collection, which is worth the attention of students on the one hand, and on the other of persons having odd copies of the magazines and newspapers on the list, and who would like to assist in supplying the deficiencies of the collection.

A 'Guide to the Civil Service of the United States,' by John M. Comstock, Chairman of the Board of Examiners for Customs, New York; and a 'Cyclopedia of German Poetry, Ballad and Lyrical,' edited by Karl Koortz, with German text and choice translations, will be published by Henry Holt & Co.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, have in press 'Luther and the Reformation,' by Dr. Seiss; 'Amateur Photography,' by Ellerslie Wallace, jr.; and a 'True History of the Charge of the 8th Pennsylvania Cavalry at Chancellorsville,' by P. Huey.

Mr. P. S. P. Conner, 126 South Eighteenth Street, Philadelphia, is collecting the correspondence of his father, the late Commodore Conner, and will be glad of the loan of letters from or to the latter, as well as to be furnished with any anecdotes or reminiscences concerning him. Mr. Conner's object is perhaps a life of the Commodore, whose inaction during the Mexican war, it will be remembered, was recently censured by Captain Parker in his 'Recollections of a Naval Officer.'

The Leonard Scott Publishing Company, No. 1104 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, state that they have had "transferred" to them the proposed reissue of the *Contemporary*, the *Nineteenth Century*, and the *Fortnightly Reviews*, which the "English Publishing Company" advertised: and in token of it we have received the January *Fortnightly* in its new dress. Whether the recent protest of Messrs. Kegan, Paul, Trench & Co. against the English Publishing Company's undertaking holds good here also, we cannot say.

To their Parchment Paper series D. Appleton & Co have just added 'Pictures of English Society,' some forty copies of Du Maurier's drawings in *Punch*, reduced by "process." A slight sketch of the artist, based on Mr. James's article in the *Century* last May, is prefixed. The letter-press is printed on the page opposite the cuts, and the whole effect is very pretty. There is a certain loss in color from the reduction, as well as of expression in the faces, though in the latter particular the defect is more trifling than might have been expected. Perhaps the worst instance is in "Beauty a Critic on Beauty," where the scale prevents the point from being seen instantly.

Harper & Bros. have issued Mr. G. W. Curtis's oration at the unveiling of Ward's Washington on November 26, in a handsome pamphlet.

A heliotype view of the statue is given as a frontispiece.

In Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for January, the single topic is "Classical Studies and Scientific Studies," to which four pages are devoted. The summary view is made extremely valuable by its chronological arrangement, the earliest date being 1833, when George Combe was lecturing in Edinburgh on popular education.

"The Metrological System of the Great Pyramid," with which Prof. Piazzi Smyth's name is most prominently associated, is ruthlessly exposed by President Barnard in the *School of Mines Quarterly* for January. We can recommend his paper (which is but begun in the present number) as very entertaining reading.

Union and Confederate Annals is the title of a monthly magazine issued last month from the Valley Bookstore, 308 N. Sixth Street, St. Louis. It will consist of "facts and incidents of the late war in the Southern States, from Union and Confederate sources, recited in a fraternal spirit." There is also a "Mexican War Department," and one for "The Texas and Other Wars." Useful is the record of Reunions and Fraternities, and the list of Army and Historical Societies. Book reviews further add to the variety of the contents, but are too brief and perfunctory to be worth much except as advertisements.

Any one desirous to assist in determining the true status of the European house-sparrow (*Passer domesticus*) in this country, "in so far as the relations of this bird to mankind are concerned," will do well to apply for blanks lately issued by the American Ornithologists' Union. These contain twenty-seven questions touching the habits, diet, and general reputation for good or evil of the little stranger, and may be had of and returned to Dr. J. B. Holder, at the American Museum of Natural History in Central Park.

The Third Annual Report of the United States Geological Survey, submitted by Director J. W. Powell to the Secretary of the Interior, has been recently issued from the Government Printing Office at Washington. It covers the operations of the Survey for the year ending June 30, 1882. It is a large volume of 564 pages, including what appears to be a very full index. It is illustrated by 67 plates and 56 woodcuts. Of the former, 32 are devoted wholly to paleontological figures (fossil mollusca). The volume contains a brief introduction and financial statement by Director Powell, followed by short administrative reports of nine heads of divisions, giving an account of progress in their respective departments. The principal communications of a scientific nature comprise one by Professor O. C. Marsh on "Birds with Teeth," another by Roland D. Irving on "The Copper-Bearing Rocks of Lake Superior"; a "Sketch of the Geological History of Lake Lahontan," by Israel C. Russell; "Abstract of the Report upon the Geology of the Eureka District, Nevada," by Arnold Hague; "Preliminary Paper on the Terminal Moraine of the Second Glacial Epoch," by Thomas C. Chamberlin; and "A Review of the Non-Marine Fossil Mollusca of North America," by C. A. White, M. D.

Mr. Arnold Hague has caused to be issued in a separate cover, for distribution among those especially interested in the subject, his 'Abstract of the Report upon the Geology of the Eureka District, Nevada,' mentioned in the foregoing note as forming part of Director Powell's volume. This publication includes two plates, one presenting a handsomely executed geological map, the other showing geological cross-sections of the Eureka District. This district is one of great economical interest as it has long

been one of the most important mining centres of the West, and, since the decline of mining activity on the Comstock Lode, is probably at present the most successful mining region in the State of Nevada. Within the last fifteen years it has been the source of about \$50,000,000 in gold, silver, and lead. It is, moreover, of special interest from a scientific point of view, since the region consists largely, almost wholly, of sedimentary rocks, and affords to the geologists an exceptional opportunity for the study of the lower and middle Palaeozoic formations, developed upon a grand scale and presenting some intricate and interesting problems in mountain structure. Mr. Hague's study of the district is purely geological in its scope. The forthcoming report, of which the paper now presented is an abstract, will consist of a volume of text, devoted to a description and discussion of the geology of the region, and an illustrative atlas of topographical and geological maps and cross-sections. Two special monographs, amply illustrated, will accompany the report, one by Mr. Charles D. Walcott, upon the palaeontology of the Eureka District, and the other by Mr. Joseph P. Iddings, upon the microscopic petrography of the eruptive rocks of the region. The whole work of Mr. Hague and his assistants, as forecast in the abstract, promises to be a very important contribution to geological knowledge, especially of the Palaeozoic formations of the West.

—The London Publishers' Circular for December 31, 1883, according to its annual custom, gives an analytical table of the books published during the last twelve months. From this table it is seen that the new issues of 1883 exceeded those of 1882 by 754 volumes. Of the total number (4,732), 704, or more than one-sixth, are works on theology; 741, also more than one-sixth, are juvenile literature. 556, more than one-eighth, are classified as educational books, including classical texts and philological works; 414, or more than one-eleventh, as history and biography; 354, one-thirteenth, as books on the arts and sciences, and illustrated works; and 256, or one-eighteenth, as belles-lettres, essays, and monographs. The most interesting feature of this report, however, seems to be the fact that by far the largest increase is in the department of belles-lettres, where the number rose from 92 in 1882 to 256 in 1883. In educational literature there was also an increase from 455 in 1882 to 556 in 1883, and in theological works from 596 to 704. In books on the arts and sciences, and illustrated works, there was an increase of 90; in law and jurisprudence, of 87; and in history and biography, of 53. The increase in the issue of novels is limited to 43, while in poetry and the drama there has been a falling off from 156 in 1882 to 145 in 1883. The general total of new editions has advanced from 1,146 in 1882 to 1,413 in 1883, an increase of 267. Of this increase, 105, nearly one-half, falls under the head of novels. It seems to have been a better year for old novels than for new ones. The influence of the holiday trade is shown in the fact that the number of books published in December is nearly double the number published in any other month except November. While the average number of issues per month was 512, the number published in December was 1,028, and the number in January 207. A survey of the year as a whole, from the book-maker's point of view, would seem to justify the statement of the *Circular* that "there has been a progressive movement in trade circles during the year, and that a demand for actual novelty in literature is making itself felt."

—According to the last report of the librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, the number

of volumes and pamphlets was 149,750, and of volumes alone 134,587. Of the \$5,371.68 spent for books and pamphlets, only \$469.15 were spent for novels. The library has not attempted for some years to maintain the supply of fiction duplicates, and to this fact, and partly to outside resources in the way of cheap literature, is owing the decrease in the percentage of fiction, which fell from 64.1 to 62.6 in the two preceding years, and for 1882-3 was 60.2. But the librarian is encouraged further by the fact that the non-fiction works require much more time to read them than the ordinary reader gives to his novel, so that the usual statistics by no means show the amount of thought or the literary activity required by the different classes of books. In the large efforts now made to increase the use of libraries, especially among the children in the schools, the Cincinnati Library was obliged during the last year to take a step apparently backward. The Board of Managers was informed that many young people, under pretext of visiting the library in the evening, went out for other purposes; and to prevent such excuse after 9 o'clock, the library was closed at that hour from October 1, 1882, to June 30, 1883. A former generation would have thought 9 o'clock late enough for their young people, and the ordinary schoolboy would probably get all the advantage from the library by that hour that would be possible for him. But another class—whether productive literary workers or not is perhaps doubtful—would be dissatisfied with the restriction, as the Cincinnati Library appeals to a much larger public than most others, and was formerly open till 10 o'clock in all the departments excepting the art and the cataloguing room: the main hall having been kept open for the issue and reading of books, as well as the newspaper and periodical rooms.

—To those admirers of Mr. John Morley who have not been able to escape regret that he should have quitted the stronghold of the independent scholar for the tricks and turbulence of the political arena, his essay on Emerson prefixed to Macmillan's edition will bring some welcome reassurance. The great merit of Emerson is still affirmed to be that he is "the friend of those who live in the spirit"—which, of course, except in the mere phrasing of it, is not an opinion original with Mr. Arnold—that his "mission lay in calming men rather than in rousing them, and in the inculcation of serenity rather than the spread of excitement"; but Mr. Morley gives a clearer explanation of the sources of this teaching in Emerson's own thought, and the historic cause and need of it in American life:

"All thoughts are always ready, potentially if not actually. Each age selects and assimilates the philosophy that is most apt for its wants. Institutions needed regeneration in France [in the eighteenth century], and so those thinkers came into vogue and power who laid most stress on the efficacy of good institutions. In Emerson's America, the fortunes of the country made external circumstances safe for a man, and his chance was assured; so a philosophy was welcomed which turned the individual inward upon himself, and taught him to consider his own character and spiritual faculty as something more than anything external could ever be."

And a most suggestive parallel between Ruskin's explanation of the fact that semi-civilized nations are better colorists than ourselves, and Rousseau's plea for "sweet and precious ignorance," is drawn to show the harmony of this Emersonian doctrine with the philosophy of democracy.

—The essay contains a number of striking sentences, and is far from "overlaying a pitay text with a windy sermon," as Mr. Morley says

at the outset such introductions are apt to do. For instance: "The worldly and the selfish are mistaken when they assume that Common Sense is their special and exclusive portion. The small Transcendentalist goes in search of truth with the meshes of his net so large that he takes no fish. His lands apes are all horizon. It is only the great idealists, like Emerson, who take care not to miss the real." "With him, small circumstances are the occasion of great qualities." His poems are "too naked, unrelated, and cosmic; too little clad with the vesture of human associations." The essay is remarkably appreciative, but it is discriminating as well, and Mr. Morley deals severely with some of Emerson's "fair-weather" transcendentalisms: "What can be more idle, when one of the world's bitter puzzles is pressed on the teacher, than that he should betake himself to an altitude whence it is not visible, and then declare that it is not only invisible, but non-existent?" And again: "But what would those two divinities of his, Plato and Socrates, have said of a man who 'could not give an account of himself if challenged'?" Assuredly not every one who saith "Plato, Plato," is admitted to that ideal kingdom.

—Several journals, notably the *Literary World*, have been entertaining their readers of late with charges of plagiarism brought against various authors, with parallel columns of the imitator and the imitated, if we may be permitted to coin a word, and with letters from eager correspondents arguing very justly that similarity of story, similarity of ideas, and even similarity of expression are not inconsistent with entire originality. Among the authors incriminated was Mrs. S. G. C. Middlemore, who had been so unfortunate as to hear her Spanish stories told by the peasants in almost the very same words in which Bæquer heard them related by his peasants; who had, moreover, remembered them as faithfully as he had and reproduced them as exactly; but had never—she says so herself, so that it must be true—read his book till after hers was written. It was the *Athenæum* that first detected the coincidence, published the usual parallel columns, received her defence, and in a way withdrew the charges. There was also the likeness of the story of Charles Reade's "Born to Good Luck" and one of Grimm's Märchen; and of Oliphant's "Altiera Peto" and Charles Barnard's unpublished "La belle Américaine"; and, most curious of all, the three pages of instances of "Classic Plagiarism" in the *Literary World* of Aug. 11, which Mr. John Bartlett wrote to that journal to say could all be found in his "Familiar Quotations," implying that the unweaver of plagiarisms had appropriately plagiarized the instances which he gave of the fault. These little accidents are not confined to English-writing authors. Last August the *Bulletin Critique* contained an amusing review, by Father A. Ingold, author of the "Essai de bibliographie oratoire," of Monseigneur Ricard's "Les premiers Jansénistes et Port-Royal." The learned Oratorian declared that of the second part, relating to Port Royal, nine chapters out of fifteen were copied almost literally from the "Port-Royal" of Sainte-Beuve, the "Histoire de Louis XIV." of Gaillardin, or the "Jansénistes du 17e siècle" of the Abbé Fuzet, and that the other six chapters were in large part conveyed from the same sources. Mgr. Ricard had indeed changed *horizon restreint* into *horizons étroits*, *illustré* into *éclairé*, *Eglise catholique romaine* into *catholicisme*, *assourdissant* into *étourdissant*, and so on; but otherwise the sentences are word for word the same. Why he took the trouble to make these changes is not evident, except in one of the cases cited,

where his motive is plain enough. Sainte-Beuve had said that "plusieurs des jeunes filles qui devinrent les principales religieuses de Port-Royal" had had the smallpox, which spoiled their faces. Mgr. Ricard, eager to cast a slur on the Port-Royalists, makes this "la plupart, pour ne pas dire toutes," and in the summary of the chapter simply says "toutes marquées de la petite vérole." If he were willing to use the plea, Mgr. Ricard no doubt could urge that his plagiarism was well for the public, giving them much better matter for their money than they would have had if he had depended upon his own resources. Sainte-Beuve's work is excellent reading and not bad history, whereas, if one can judge by three passages discussed at some length by Father Ingold, either Mgr. Ricard's ideas of the laws of evidence are very hazy, or his love of historical truth is on a par with his regard for the rights of literary property.

—Mgr. Ricard is a prelate attached to the household of the Pope, and a popular author of works of devotion. His "Mois des Fraynes spirituelles," "Mois des Pèlerins," "Mois des Bergers," and other "Mois sanctifiés par la prière"; his "Matinées de l'âme pieuse," his "Manuel de la jeune personne," and the two periodicals which he edits, the *Semaine Religieuse* and the *Propagateur de la Doctrine à Saint-Joseph*, no doubt breathe a most edifying spirit, and have consoled thousands of souls, for whose sake it would not do to leave Father Ingold's attack unanswered. A periodical which he has just founded, the *Annales de France*, gave him a place in which to reply; the only difficulty was to find anything to say. He had not Mrs. Middlemore's defence of a common popular origin; he could not allege unconscious memory (for nine chapters) nor the other excuse—great minds engaged upon the same subject and thinking alike; people do not think in the same words for hundreds of pages. Nor could he deny the similarity, for the books were before the public to compare. However, he hit upon a formula which is quite as good as many of the excuses that convince everybody at a spiritualist seance, and so no doubt will serve with his audience. He attacks the *Bulletin Critique* as belonging to the Liberal Catholic school, and warns the public to "regard with suspicion its passionate verdicts, which are often unjust toward writers who profess a full and entire submission to the Council of the Vatican."

—In seven numbers of last year's *Athenæum* (May 3-August 25), Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch, Professor of Assyriology in the University of Leipzig, published a series of articles on "The Importance of Assyriology to Hebrew Lexicography." To many an English reader interested in Old Testament studies, but unacquainted with the philological results of Assyriological inquiry, these popularly written, though very learned, essays must have been a revelation. The author, however, was evidently less intent on popularizing cuneiform discoveries than on advocating in a new arena the claims of his science to be considered a most (if not the most) helpful instrument for establishing the true meaning of obscure Hebrew roots and stems. He has now reissued the series, in a revised and augmented form, in the shape of a small volume, entitled "The Hebrew Language, viewed in the Light of Assyrian Research" (London: Williams & Norgate). This English publication of the younger Delitzsch is remarkable for all the good qualities which characterize his writings in German, one of the most important of which, "Wo lag das Paradies?" we lately introduced to our readers (No. 924 of the *Nation*) in an extensive review.

Professor Delitzsch pleads for Assyrian as the best guide in Hebrew etymology, and his plea, supported by a vast amount of evidence lucidly presented, is mainly directed against the still prevalent Arabizing school of lexicographers. As the chief and latest exponent of this school, which relies almost exclusively on the immense stores of the Arabic vocabulary for the explanation of everything uncertain in the kindred tongue of the Hebrews, he selects the Dictionary of Gesenius, as presented to students by Professors Mühlau and Volck, in the eighth and ninth editions (1878 and 1883). Though mainly limiting his censure "to cases where the editors have erroneously deviated from the correct views of Gesenius, or have failed to recognize what Fürst and Levy had already anticipated," he attacks the whole old system, believing that "it is time to abandon the ordinary practice of forcing the peculiar, often late, meanings of the Arabic words upon the much older Hebrew sister." His wider aim is, in fact, to attempt a total reformation of the Hebrew dictionary by means of Assyrian; but he is not yet decided whether he should begin it by "Prolegomena to a new Hebrew dictionary," or publish at once his own Hebrew dictionary, compiled along with his Assyrian dictionary. Even as stated in this form, this announcement is important.

—It is an easy matter for Professor Delitzsch to point out absurdities into which Hebrew lexicographers have fallen, from a presumed necessity of explaining everything and the presumed possession of a general key in Arabic. Such is the explanation of a Hebrew verb meaning *to lie* by an Arabic one meaning *to be red*—"i. e., to redden, to paint red, to varnish the truth, i. e., to lie," or of a verb meaning *to join* by one meaning *to break*, "because joining as well as breaking may be effected by striking one object against the other." Hardly less strange is the explanation of the Hebrew verb *kāmar* and its derivatives in the last edition of Gesenius's dictionary, which "gives three different meanings to this one root; firstly, 'to hide,' by which *mikhmereth*, 'net,' is explained as the object hidden in the water or on the earth; secondly, 'to bedark or black,' by which *komer*, 'priest,' is interpreted to mean originally 'blackness,' then the 'dark-dressed man' . . . ; thirdly, 'to contract,' therefore, Gen. xliii. 30, 'His bowels were drawn together towards his brother.'" Still more justly does Professor Delitzsch ridicule the conjunction of the Hebrew word designating the Pleiads with an Arabic verb signifying *to have a large hump* and its derivative meaning *a heap*. "Those seven stars, which are compared by Persian poets with a necklace or a bouquet of jewels, could hardly be compared with a heap of earth." But we are afraid he is himself not sufficiently guarded against the temptation to explain too much and explain too consistently through a favorite medium, which has proved so dangerous to etymologists in all linguistic fields—as when, in explaining *kāmar* and its derivatives with the help of the cuneiform inscriptions, he reaches the conclusion that "the passage in Sam. v. 10 is . . . to be translated 'Our skin has been overpowered like an oven,' i. e., has become powerless, or lost its vigor and power of resistance 'by the burning of the famine.'" Nor is his Assyrian explanation of Heb. *ēm*, mother, much sounder—though certainly less preposterous—than the Arabizing one which he derides. The Hebrew word for mother stands in the same relation to *mamma* (*ma*), Lat. *mater*, Ger. *Mama* and *Amme*, Russ. *mat'*, Pol. *matka* and *matka*, Hun. *anya*, and a multitude of similar primitive words signifying mother or nurse, in all kinds of languages, in

which the Hebrew word for father, *ab*, stands to *papa* (*pa*), Lat. *pater* and *avus*, Hun. *apa*, etc., etc.

—The Germans, who used to write in terms of almost querulous admiration about the sumptuousness of English philological works, have left everybody behind—at least every philological periodical behind—in the first number of the *Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft*, edited by Dr. Techmer (Leipzig: Barth; New York: Westermann). It is almost too fine for use, like Egmont when he appears in gala-dress to Clärchen. There is absolutely no fault to be found with quality and tone of paper; type and press-work are both admirable. To American eyes, however, the page is too broad. Almost all German scholars are near-sighted, and, to a man who has to put his nose within an inch of the paper, it matters not how broad a page is; but to the normal American eye the succession of long lines is fatiguing. The frontispiece represents the statue of Wilhelm von Humboldt, erected last May in front of the Berlin University, and each number is to be adorned by the likeness of some eminent philologist. The veteran "circumnavigator of the world of languages," as he has been somewhat grandiloquently called, A. F. Pott, contributes an "Introduction to the Science of Language"; Dr. Techmer, an elaborate treatise on the "Physical Analysis and Synthesis of Audible Speech," profusely illustrated, though the illustrations are only too familiar. This is followed by a method of transcription into italics. From Colonel Mallery, a well known American investigator, we have a treatise on "Sign Language"; Max Müller indulges in one of his mythologico-etymological flights, which never carry him far out of sight of the sun. Especially noteworthy is the concluding article by Prof. Karl Brugmann, on the question as to the affinities of the Indo-Germanic languages. The tendency of the paper is to check rash inferences as to the closer relations of two or more members of the Indo-Germanic family. We must not be satisfied with coincidence here and there; but in all the deviations from the stock, in all the innovations, we must find agreement in phonetics, inflection, syntax, vocabulary, before we can say, "Here are twins!" "Here are triplets!" The exceeding caution of the school of which Brugmann is so prominent a representative is "disillusioning"—but so is life, so is truth.

—M. Charles Joliet, who published in 1867 a little book or list of 'Les Pseudonymes du Jour,' has recently issued a second and enlarged edition (Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christian). It is not exhaustive or elaborate, but it is a convenient guide to the host of fictitious names used in minor Parisian journalism and literature. Even a distant New Yorker may note the omission of M. Guy de Maupassant, some of whose articles in the *Gil Blas* are signed "Maufriigneuse"—a Balzacian pseudonym not unsuited to the curiously powerful or perverse writing of M. de Maupassant. Moreover, the pseudonym of the late Hablot K. Browne is thus set down (p. 98): "Phryz.—Knight Brown." But such slips are comparatively few, and the utility of the work is indisputable. After separate lists of ladies' *noms de guerre* and of those of men of letters, there are lists also of the real names of artists, painters, and sculptors, of composers and musicians, and of actors and actresses. Among the writing ladies who sign with a pseudonym are Mme. Blanc, who is "Th. Bentzon"; the Countess of Mirabeau, who signs her sketches in the *Vie Parisienne* with an aristocratic "Zut" or "Chut"; the Countess of Martel, who wrote for the same lively paper, under the

signature of "Gyp," a series of light sketches, since gathered into a volume called 'Autour du Mariage'; Mme. Durand, who signs "Henry Gréville"; Mme. Fould, whose signature is "Gustave Haller"; and Mme. Dussaud, who is "Jacques Vincent." Perhaps the most curious thing to be noted in the book by these American journalists is the habit which obtains among Parisian newspapers of having a signature or two which is common property, and which may be used at any time by any writer who does not care to sign his work.

—It was a foregone conclusion that the Fifth Avenue Theatre would be crowded on the occasion of the first production in this country of "Princess Ida, or Castle Adamant," a "respectful perversion" of Tennyson's "Princess." The extraordinary popularity attained by "Pinafore" insured for every subsequent work by Gilbert and Sullivan at least a *succès de curiosité*, and even reversed the judgment of the past, inasmuch as "The Sorcerer," an earlier work which had made but little impression, was subsequently revived with success. These works, together with the "Pirates," established a new style of English operetta quite distinct from the French and German styles. The fourth of these works, "Patience," owed part of its vogue to the fact that it was a timely satire on the "aesthetic craze." In "Iolanthe" it became evident that the authors had exhausted their new vein entirely, and on hearing "Princess Ida" on Monday evening most of the spectators must have wondered why the authors should persist in working a mine in which not a single nugget of gold is left, and only a few traces of silver. Mr. Gilbert's exhaustion is most conspicuous, although Mr. Sullivan seems to take pains not to offer many opportunities for odious comparisons. In "Princess Ida" Gilbert harps on his favorite old string. We have the same elegantly attired chorus of lovesick maidens grouped in a reclining posture on the stage; the same simplicity of plot, without the slightest attempt to attain dramatic suspense; and the same topsy-turvy jokes, half-way between wit and baby-talk. The verdict of the London press led one to believe that, although Gilbert's libretto was a failure, Sullivan's music fully atoned for his colleague's shortcomings. This is not the case. Some of the concerted pieces and choruses, especially in the prologue, are well written and spirited, although void of originality. The solo numbers are weak, with two or three exceptions, the best being *Lady Psyche's* song about man, who "at best is only a monkey shaved." It is often asserted that where Sullivan does not write "catchy" tunes for the people he appeals to the cultivated musician by his subtle art. This is precisely what he does not do in his latest works. Some of his lyric songs are not only beautiful as melodies, but have an exquisite harmonic accompaniment for the piano-forte, while in "Princess Ida" the harmonies are of the most primitive description, seldom rising above the level of Donizetti. A curious feature is the perceptible influence of Handel. But Handel never was a very successful Italian opera composer, and his style is hardly adapted to modern operetta. Sullivan's treatment of the orchestra is by no means so full of variety and piquant effects as Lecocq's or Strauss's. There is one passage, however, in *Lady Blanche's* song just referred to, "But it would not do: the scheme fell through," where a delicate and charming effect is produced by the violins. The performance was one of the smoothest first-night performances ever given in this city. The orchestra is small but efficient, the chorus

well trained and of excellent vocal quality, and all the *ensemble* parts, therefore, went well, combining the freshness of a first night with the polish usually only attained after many repetitions. The scenery is magnificent, especially in the prologue and second act, and the costumes not only effective but tasteful, adding a special charm of color to several of the striking tableaux. For all these things the play is worth seeing. The cast is not remarkable.

GENERAL GORDON IN THE SUDAN.

The Story of Chinese Gordon. By A. Egmont Hake. London: Remington & Co.; New York: R. Worthington. 1884.

THE return of General Gordon to the Sudan in the present critical state of affairs gives a peculiar interest and importance to his experiences in that wild and distant portion of the world when he was Governor there, under the late Khedive of Egypt, Ismail Pasha, and for a short time under his successor, Tewfik. The circumstances which led to his appointment as Governor were essentially the same as those which have occasioned his present mission. Then, as now, the equatorial provinces of Darfur and Kordofan had risen in successful revolt against the Egyptian Government, and the insurrectionary movement was rapidly spreading northward over the Sudan. Gordon checked this movement for the time, but only checked it. He had no sooner left the country than the causes which had produced insurrection again began to operate, and the present effort after independence which has Obeid for its centre is only a continuance of the rising which Gordon confronted and partially suppressed in 1879. To describe what he had to do, and what exactly he effected, will throw no small degree of light upon the present state of affairs beyond the southern frontier of Egypt. In reviewing, therefore, 'The Story of Chinese Gordon,' it is to this part of his "story" that we shall confine ourselves.

The hold of the Egyptian Government over its southern provinces must always be weak and precarious because of the zone or desert which separates Egypt proper from the Sudan. This desert is one hundred and eighty miles across, and, until the days of Mehmet Ali, was regarded as a barrier forbidding all attempts at conquest in the interior of Africa. Sixty years ago, Mehmet Ali crossed this desert boundary, and gradually extended his authority over Kordofan, Darfur, and away to the sources of the Nile. The want of unity among a population split up into innumerable tribes enabled him to do this with but little difficulty. He, his successors, and their agents and officers, made use of this vast extension of territory for no other purpose than kidnapping slaves, driving them in droves to the coast, and there shipping them for sale in Cairo, Constantinople, or Arabia. The ravages and the misery wrought by these slave-traders surpasses almost all that the imagination can conceive. Vast tracts of country which had been the homes of a happy population, rich in villages and cultivated land, were entirely depopulated. The lines of march followed by the slave-traders and their victims could be traced by the quantity of skulls strewn along them, showing where the wretched slaves, exhausted by fatigue and thirst, had sunk down and died. The Khedives contemplated this vile traffic with the utmost complacency until they found that the growing power of the great slave-trading tribes menaced their own authority. Until they made this discovery, they remained the great support and encouragement of the slave-trade. And the pashas, mudirs, and other officials, who were described as "governing" the Sudan in

their name, took their cue from their august masters. What was called "the Government" was, in fact, an agency for carrying on the traffic in human flesh. Even the Government steamers on the Nile were pressed into the service, and came to Khartum from the interior loaded with cargoes of slaves.

The Khedive Ismail Pasha was the first to be converted to the views of the British Anti-Slavery Society, and his conversion was brought about after this manner. The great slave-dealers were in the habit of taking the best and strongest of those whom they kidnapped and forming them into a body-guard, which they made use of in their raids. Thus, gradually, they became possessed of a sort of standing army, greatly superior in physique, in courage, and in discipline to the wretched Egyptian soldiery who represented the authority of the Khedive. Among these slave-dealers, one man, by his wealth, his troops of slaves, and the number of his fortified stations, stood out as a kind of king. His name was Zebehr Rahama. Dr. Schweinfurth, the author of 'The Heart of Africa,' found him "surrounded with a court that was little less than princely in its details." His fortified posts were carried far into the heart of Africa, and over the whole country embraced by them Zebehr exercised despotic authority. The Khedive Ismail, after an unsuccessful attempt to diminish his power, was obliged to try a policy of conciliation by creating him a Pasha. This dignity did not satisfy Zebehr, and, in an unlucky moment for himself, he repaired to Cairo with £100,000 in order to bribe the Khedive and his officials into recognizing him as Sultan of Darfur. But, having got the man he dreaded into his power, Ismail was too astute a politician to let him escape. Zebehr never returned to Darfur, and he is at this moment residing in Cairo. This fate was not altogether unexpected by Zebehr. There is a large tree on the left-hand side of the road from Obeid to Shaka, about two miles from Shaka. Before his departure for Cairo, Zebehr assembled his officers under this tree and swore them to obedience upon the Koran; whatever orders he should send them from Cairo, they were to obey. When Gordon was appointed to the charge of the equatorial province, Zebehr saw him as he passed through Cairo, and strove to interest him in his favor. But, finding that Gordon would not assist him, he sent the order to his officers, "Put into effect my orders given under the tree." And so the revolt began.

It was only the accident of Gordon's nomination at this moment which saved the Khedive's Government from the ruin which has now overwhelmed it. Gordon speaks of Shaka, the headquarters of Zebehr, as a Cave of Adullam, crowded with robbers, and murderers, and ruffians of every description. They could put ten thousand men into the field. On the other side, the badness of the Egyptian Government, the worthlessness and demoralization of the Egyptian soldiery, rendered them quite incapable of holding their own against the formidable soldiers of the slave-kings. "The Government of the Egyptians in these far off countries," writes Gordon, "is nothing else but one of brigandage of the very worst description. It is so bad that all hope of ameliorating it is hopeless. . . . One thing is certain—that the Egyptian should never be allowed out of his country." Happily for the success of Gordon's undertaking, bad as the Egyptian Government was, the rule of the slave-dealers was no improvement upon it, so far as the bulk of the population was concerned. They had committed, and were still committing, the most frightful atrocities upon the people wherever they moved.

"I have been talking," writes Gordon in April, 1879, "to some of the chiefs of Darfur, and it is lamentable to learn that more than one-third of the population has been carried off into slavery. . . . All the road from here to Shaka is marked by the camping places of the slave-dealers, and there are numerous skulls by the side of the road. What thousands have passed along here! . . . I hear some districts are completely depopulated, all the inhabitants having been captured or starved to death. If our Government, instead of bothering the Khedive about that wretched debt, had spent £1,000 a year in sending up a consul here, what a deal of suffering might have been saved!"

"I have," he writes in a subsequent letter, "just made a calculation of the loss of life in Darfur during the years 1875-79. It comes to 16,000 Egyptians and some 50,000 natives of Darfur. Add to this the loss of life on the Bahr-Gazelle—some 15,000—and you will have a fine total of 81,000; and this exclusive of the slave-trade, which one may put down for these years at from 50,000 to 100,000."

In this, then, the first contest between the Egyptian Government and the slave-dealers, the victory was tolerably certain to rest with that side which could secure the active co-operation of the people. Gordon's exhaustless energy, his ferocity against all corruption and oppression, his unwearying efforts to do justice to the people, soon kindled a perfect enthusiasm for him throughout those vast and desolated regions. The people had never seen a Governor who sought to do justice and was proof against all bribes—who warred against the strong, while he systematically shielded the weak and the poor. Gordon knew—none better—that the labors in which he spent himself would bear no fruit after his departure, but he worked none the less hard on that account.

"I cannot tell you," he writes in April, 1877, "how wearisome it is to be continually finding fault and turning out officials, etc. That is my constant work; and as I go along I am like a fire, leaving wrecks behind me. I will (if I can) do my duty, troublesome and even dangerous as it may be. There is no use being gentle over it—the disease is too grave for gentle remedies."

"I think," he writes from Khartum on May 18, "the people like me; and it is an immense comfort that, while in the old régime ten or fifteen people were flogged daily, now none get flogged. A huge crowd stand around the palatial gates all day, but only a few are privileged with an interview; for I keep a box with a slit in the lid for petitions at the door, and every one can put his petition in it. Hitherto the people could never approach the Governor unless they bribed the clerks. . . . It is all nonsense for the Turks to say that the people would oppose the nomination of a Christian Governor. The people want justice. . . . I am breaking up, to the great joy of the people, the Bashi-Bazouks, who of course do not love me. A great sorrow has been taken off the land. The reign of the whip has ceased, and I do believe the people rejoice at my being here."

And again, a month later:

"The wrecks left on my passage are numerous. I have set my face as a flint, and, regardless of consequences, have been hard right and left. I do not wish to be so; I should like to praise, not blame; but seeing what I know of the sufferings of the people, I cannot force myself to let things slide."

Then, a few days after:

"The way these Bashi-Bazouks have treated their fellow-religionists here is far worse than in Bulgaria. . . . My second in command, Halid Pasha, only stayed ten days in his post. He tried to thwart me, so I telegraphed to Cairo, and in twenty-four hours he was ordered off. I feel sure it is a waste of time to argue with a Turk or a Circassian—the only way is to coerce him; you can never convince him. This is twelve years' experience of them. All this revolt is the fault of the Bashi-Bazouks. . . . Now, the Darfurians were so fanatical that they would never let a Christian into their country, and now they ask me to send Christian governors."

In this way it was not long before Gordon succeeded, in working a complete change in the feelings of the populations around him: discon-

tent gave place to loyalty. The armed borders of the slave-dealers found themselves surrounded by a population no longer apathetic, but actively hostile. Gordon himself was always on the move. Mounted upon fleet camels, he covered tremendous distances, and came down upon lazy and recalcitrant officials before they had time to suspect his approach. Drove of slaves were intercepted and set free, and their captors flogged and stripped of everything they possessed. In addition to all this, Gordon possessed in his lieutenant—an Italian by the name of Gessi—a soldier of really remarkable genius. To him was intrusted the conduct of the campaign against the armed bands of Sebehr, and they were completely destroyed in a series of operations which exhibited, on the part of Gessi, extraordinary fertility of resource, skill, and perseverance, amid difficulties of all kinds. After each successive defeat the population rose against their fugitive oppressors. The slave armies were annihilated down almost to the last man; and the land for a time had rest.

But "the wrecks" which Gordon speaks of as leaving everywhere in his passage, simply repaired to Cairo, and there, instead of being regarded with disfavor, they appeared as honored guests at the levees and banquets of the Khedive. They were in constant communication with his Ministers; and Khedive, Ministers, and expelled officials were soon all agreed that so terrible a reformer as General Gordon was not the man for Egypt. He was, indeed, altogether impracticable. He would not allow items of charge to be fastened upon the revenues of the Sudan unless Ministers could show that the Sudan was in some way connected with such items. He was attached to the monstrous heresy of putting the interests of the Sudanese before those of the place hunters in Cairo. And so the end came: he was recalled; and all the officials whom he had expelled were let loose upon the province again to torture, oppress, and lay waste. Hence the insurrection which has now assumed such formidable dimensions. Sebehr's slave armies no longer existing, the population have united, by a common impulse, against the representatives of the Egyptian Government. Gordon foresaw the probability of this.

"In spite," he wrote, "of the heavy blow that has been struck at revolt, any great leader could still make himself master of the Sudan. It was not merely with the slave-dealers that the Government had to deal. They, indeed, by themselves were powerful enough to tax all the strength of Egypt; but their strength was doubled by the support which they so largely received from the tribes that many hundreds of years earlier had passed over from Arabia and had settled in Central Africa. These Arabs were men of long descent, proud of their descent and fond of war. When tried by the standard of Turkish morality, their social life was even pure. Moreover, both in their modes of life and their ways of thinking, they were far more akin than either Turks or Egyptians to the black races in the midst of whom they and their forefathers had so long lived. These children of the desert hated the Egyptian rule, and looked with scorn upon the effeminate and grasping rulers who were sent up from Cairo to govern them. They were ready—and are still ready—to seize the first chance of shaking off the yoke of Egypt. Their war cry, so Gessi reported, was, 'This is our land—we know no Effendina (Khedive) here.'

"There is no doubt that if the Governments of France and England do not pay more attention to the Sudan, if they do not establish at Khartum a branch of the Mixed Tribunals, and see that justice is done, the disruption of the Sudan from Cairo is only a question of time. This disruption, moreover, will not end the troubles, for the Sudanese, through their allies in Lower Egypt—the Black Soldiers I mean—will carry on their efforts in Cairo itself. Now these Black Soldiers are the only troops in the Egyptian service that are worth anything."

This prediction has since been verified. The insurrection in the Sudan is a revolt against in-

tolerable misrule. It is the fact of this misrule which has given to the revolt cohesion and strength. The religious element in it is subordinate, and, as it were, forced upon it by the constitution of a Moslem state. That constitution is theocratic, and if the Khedive or any other Moslem sovereign can get the orthodox expounders of the *Sheriat* or Moslem law upon his side, he can always make it appear that those in revolt against his authority are also rebels against the Divine Law. He can, in a word, pronounce sentence of excommunication against them. The possession of this spiritual weapon on the one side forces the other to claim spiritual authority also, and declare that it is acting upon an independent religious basis. The leader of the present rebellion, though he is reported to have declared that he is "the Mahdi," has, in all probability, not claimed that dignity at all, but the humble one of being a forerunner of the Mahdi. This would be a far safer rôle to play. To the achievements of "the Mahdi" proper there can be no limit. But a forerunner of that tremendous personage may perhaps be regarded as having established the authenticity of his pretensions when he has expelled the Egyptians from their equatorial provinces.

THE RUMANIAN LANGUAGE.

A Simplified Grammar of the Roumanian Language. By R. Torceanu. London: Trübner & Co. 1883. Pp. 71.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Torceanu founded the meanings of the words *simplify* and *abridge*, for Rumanian grammar is so simple in itself that the addition of a very few pages would have rendered his book much clearer and more intelligible, and quite as sufficient for ordinary use as the more elaborate work of Maxim (Hermannstadt, 1877). There is not a word, for instance, about orthography, and yet one of the first difficulties that confront one on opening a Rumanian book is the varying spelling. There are at least two systems in vogue, both strongly supported. Where some write words with an *ea* or *oa*, as *seara*, 'evening,' *noapte*, 'night,' others write with an *o* or *ô*, as *sêra*, *nôpte*. The letters *â*, *ê*, *î* have exactly the same sound, somewhat like that of *i* in the English pronunciation of the word *squirrel*, and properly are varied only according to the derivation of the word to show the original vowel; but frequently they are confused, and it may be necessary to make all the possible variations in the word before it can be found in the dictionary. Thus *blând*, from the Latin *blandus*, is written *blând* in Costinescu's dictionary. Torceanu, in the book before us, uses *â*, *ê* instead of *â*, *ê*, and spells his own name with *ea* instead of *ê*, as is his usage for other words. Should *di*, 'day' (Lat. *dies*) be written *di*, *di* or *zi*? Usage differs. Then there is the question of the final *u*. Should it be written at all, or should it have a short accent, *û*? Torceanu gives us this plain and almost Irish rule: "*û*, when it occurs at the end of a word, is pronounced like a silent *u*, which is called *û* short." In fact, *û* and *i* at the end of words correspond exactly to the Slavic so-called semi-vowels *ь* and *и* and are not pronounced, although the *î* affects somewhat the sound of the preceding consonant—changing, for example, *tinto* to *ty*, or, as it is written, *tî*. The use of the final unpronounced *û* is now discouraged as unnecessary, awkward, and wasting space, although the great newspaper of Bucharest still continues to call itself *Românulû*. Its disuse relieves the language a little of its reduplicative appearance, though strangers still judge it by one of the first signs they see on driving into Bucharest from the railway station: *Biuroulu Regiei Monopolului Tutunurilor*.

The final *û* was originally either part of a lost termination, or has been added to words by analogy on the theory that no word could end in a consonant.

The unsettled orthography of Rumanian should not seem strange to us when we remember that it is scarcely thirty years since the Latin alphabet has been in use. Before that time, except for a short period, when the Phanariote princes tried to introduce the Greek alphabet, the language was always written and printed in the barbarous Cyrillic or Old Slavic characters—not even those more shapely ones used by the Russians, Bulgarians, and Serbians. The spread of education has been rapid since the nation awoke to life and vigor as a *contre-coup* of the Crimean and Italian wars.* The tendency of Rumania is toward Western civilization, and the old alphabet has so completely disappeared that in the courts of justice it is necessary to employ an expert to read contracts and other documents written forty and fifty years ago.

The grammar of Rumanian is almost purely Latin, and now that words are written legibly, more or less regularly, and without abbreviations, it needs but a glance at a book or a newspaper to see this. One of the great exceptions is that the definite article is affixed to the word instead of preceding it. Some have tried to see the origin of this *-ul* in the Latin *ille*; others have attempted to show that it comes from a Slavic source. It is a curious fact, however, that this peculiarity is shared by three languages of the Balkan peninsula, and that we meet with it nowhere nearer than in Scandinavia, or the Caucasus. Even though the article in Rumanian, like that in French and the Romance languages, be traced to *ille*, and the Bulgarian *-to* to the Slavic demonstrative pronoun *tot*, still the habit, in common with the Albanian, of placing the article after the word, as a component part thereof, may well lead grammarians to see in this a relic of the early Dacian or Pelasgic language (call it by what name you will) which was once predominant in those parts.

Certain terminations and methods of forming derivative words betray a strong Slavic influence. But the Slavic influence has been exercised chiefly upon the vocabulary. Here we touch a subject with regard to which the Rumanians are curiously sensitive—their ethnology. They are most anxious to think themselves of Latin race, and consider any proof of foreign mixture as a disgrace. They prefer to be descended from the Roman legionaries—few of whom were of Latin blood—rather than from the most courageous of Dacians, or from the bravest Slavs, or other barbarians, who conquered the Roman mercenaries. To such an extent is this feeling carried, that Rumanian statesmen gravely interpret an article of their Constitution forbidding the colonization of the country "by populations of foreign race," as allowing colonization by Italians, French, Portuguese, and Spaniards. With regard to the composition of the language, we must cite Cihac, the only writer who has thoroughly studied it. We know that Cihac is discredited by Rumanians of the Latin school, but personal experience has convinced us of the justness of his views. (Perhaps the reviewer may be allowed to confess here that he has no Slavic blood, much Platt-Deutsch, and a little trace of French and Indian blood, of which he is very proud.) According to Cihac, then, who has written the best dictionary of Rumanian, the vocabulary is composed one-fifth of Latin words, two-fifths of Slavic words, and the remaining two-fifths of

* With a population of nearly 5,400,000 there were under instruction in all the schools and universities 103,397 in 1876, and 142,584 in 1881. There were in 1881, besides the two universities, 2,520 primary schools, and 309 of various grades.

words derived from the Turkish, modern Greek, Magyar, and Albanian. The Slavic form is seen in a great number of suffixes, used also for non-Slavic words, in family names, as well as names of places, which are more than half Slavic (though it is to be noticed as a peculiarity of Rumania, different from all Slavic and most Latin countries, that there is scarcely a single village named after a saint); in the names given to flowers; in the language, the subject, and the form of popular poetry; in numerous feasts and superstitions. Notwithstanding the great Greek clerical influence in Rumania, it is curious that the terms of the Church, principally Greek, have for the most part come through the Slavic. Slight distinction should be made between the vocabulary of Rumania proper; that of Bessarabia, which has been submitted to Russian influence; and that of Transylvania and the Banate, which have for many hundred years been under Magyar and German rule. The general result is the same.

Even in finding fault with extreme views of all kinds, we must take into consideration that the Rumanians were for centuries enslaved to Slavs, Magyars, and Turks, and that it is but natural that they should prefer the claim of belonging to a higher race and civilization—the Latin. This, however, has brought the Academy into what we can but think a great error. An effort has been made of recent years to expel all the non-Latin words from the language, and to put in their places Latin, Italian, and French words. Similar efforts are made among all rising peoples, as, for example, Greeks, Hungarians, and Finns, with perhaps more reason. But to us English-speaking people, who prize our own language and its composite origin, the policy of the Rumanian Academicians appears a seriously mistaken one. Their mixed tongue, with its differences of accent, seems to us now the most euphonious of Latin languages, even superior to Spanish, and one which it would be a crime to spoil. Fortunately the good sense of the people is superior to that of the grammarians and Academicians, and already the reaction is beginning to be visible. Let us hope that Young Rumania will reject a mere Latin-French jargon, and preserve a tongue which, next, perhaps, to English, lends itself best to eloquence and poetry.

CODIFICATION IN NEW YORK.

The Proposed Codification of our Common Law.

A paper prepared at the request of the Committee of the Bar Association of the city of New York, appointed to oppose the measure. By James C. Carter, a member of the Committee. New York, 1884.

THE revival of the agitation for a code in this State has had at least one very good effect—it has caused some of the ablest lawyers in the country to examine the whole question of codification anew in the light cast upon it by the research and discussion of the last twenty years. Among them, no one has brought to the work more ability and fairness than Mr. Carter, whose standing as a lawyer, it need hardly be said, is of the highest. He appears as a member of a committee professedly hostile to the Code proposed for adoption at Albany; but it is well known to many of our readers that the Bar Association of this city had no original bias against codification in general, or this code in particular, but was driven into hostility to it by the discovery of the real character of its contents, brought out by close and impartial study. Mr. Carter's opinion is properly to be considered not that of an advocate, but of an extremely competent judge, and it is one entitled to very great weight. It is not, of course, decisive, nor

does he put it forward as such; but it ranks with any of the ablest English judicial opinions on codification which have been brought out by the recent discussions in Great Britain.

Mr. Field, we believe, still maintains that the Legislature of this State is under a positive obligation arising out of the history of codification to adopt his code in some form; and if this is true the field of discussion is very narrow. But the idea that the Legislature in 1884 is obliged to codify because the State twenty years ago authorized a commission to draft and report a code, appears to have no solid foundation whatever. That a civilized State should have irrevocably pledged itself to codify, even if codification were proved by experience to be a work requiring generations for its execution, is conceivable; but it is too much to ask us to believe that it pledged itself to codify, if codification should be shown by experience to be impracticable or unwise.

The battle, therefore, rages really over two points—first, the question whether the proposed code is a good piece of work of its kind, and, second, whether the work can be done at all. Mr. Carter's pamphlet is an important contribution to the solution of both these points. To follow his own order of treatment, it is important for any one who wishes to get a full understanding of the controversy to remember that, since Bentham's time, the whole drift of the discussion about codification has taken a new turn. Bentham discussed it in a wholly abstract way. Can the law be codified? Bentham said that it could, because the principle governing the decision of a case by a judge could be written down in a brief form. If the rule of decision can be extracted from one, it can be from a hundred cases, and in this way we get a rule of law which we can put in the form of a statute. By getting together all the rules of law out of all the cases and throwing them into the form of a statute, we get a code. Nothing can be simpler. We pass statutes every day. Why not a code?

Since Bentham's time, however, the analytic, abstract method of considering such questions has been shown to be incomplete. Before we give an answer we must look at the matter in an historical aspect. We must ask what a code has been in the past; whether our law develops itself in a way which makes the reappearance of such bodies of law as in other nations are called codes likely or desirable, and above all what effects, judging by the past, the adoption of a code will produce. It was always assumed by the early school of codifiers that a code would necessarily produce certainty and uniformity in the law, chiefly because they confined their attention to the work regarded as a collection of rules of law, and wholly neglected to inquire what effects the past history of the law made it probable that the codification of such rules would entail. All this is rather implied than stated in Mr. Carter's book, but it should be constantly borne in mind in considering what he says.

Mr. Carter contends that the great body of private law—that relating to contracts, the domestic relations of parents and child, husband and wife, that which governs the transactions of business, and the exchange of commodities—cannot be codified, while he admits that the public law (that relating to the State, and the connection of the citizen with the State) may. The penal law (which is in the main statutory) he also lays aside as confessedly codifiable. This law, and the law of procedure, indeed, in this State have been thrown into the form of codes already. But the great body of what lawyers call case-law, or what Bentham calls judge-made law, he says cannot be put into the form of a code so that

it will, if created to-day, represent accurately and finally and certainly what the law is.

The reason for believing this to be a true view of the matter is in large part historical. In a few words, it may be said to be that the countries in which codes have been resorted to, are governed by a system of law in which the administration of justice by magistrates independent of the sovereign is unknown. All the modern Continental codes are based upon the Roman law, and in Rome law was something defined and imposed upon the people by a sovereign. May we not indeed go further than this, and suggest that codification is in great measure a survival of primitive law? The Twelve Tables, the laws of Manu, large portions of the Old Testament and the Koran are codes; but it would be felt to be absurd to cite any of these as reasons for adopting the proposed civil code at Albany. Yet in some respects it may be shown that the Code Napoleon or the Prussian Code resembles these very closely, and that an argument founded upon the success of codifiers in France and Prussia is equally irrelevant here. In neither France nor Prussia, nor in any country governed by the Roman law, is the judiciary independent of the executive. The French or Prussian judge declares the law as he finds it in the code, he administers the code as the expression of the will of the supreme power, and has never attempted to develop the law for himself, in our sense of the word. This, however, is precisely what the Anglo-Saxon judge has done. In his hands the function of administering justice has been wrested from the executive, and vested in a separate branch of the Government, which recognizes no superior but justice itself. Executive interference with the judiciary has, in England and in this country, long been unknown. With us even the Legislature is cut off at many points from trenching upon it, by constitutional provisions guaranteeing the sanctity of contracts, of property, of life, and liberty. The Anglo-Saxon judiciary has intrenched itself behind a principle which, if not unknown, is certainly strangely unimportant in Continental jurisprudence—that of *stare decisis*—the principle that makes the decision of every generation of judges binding upon its successors, and which yet permits the growth and development of the law by confining every rule to the identical facts to which it was originally applied.

Such has been the progress of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence in England and the United States for three centuries. What a code, if successful, must do, is to bring this progress to an end, and to reverse the law of its development. The judge must become the creature of the code; he must not look beyond its letter, into the immutable principles of justice and right, or the customs of men out of which all rules of law grow, but he must obediently apply the written rule as he finds it. Could this be accomplished, a code could be introduced at once. Yet it is so obviously impracticable that no one has ever dared to propose it. The proposal involves the idea of a return to a primitive conception of law and justice hitherto universally recognized as inferior to our own.

But it may be said, Why does not all this apply in a modified form to legislation? The Legislature is continually altering and amending the law. Why should it not also codify it? The answer is first that when sudden and drastic changes of the law are proved by experience to be necessary, it is impossible to await the slow process of its growth and amelioration in the courts. There must be somewhere a power to change the law rapidly, and we vest it in the Legislature. But this is a wholly different matter from codification. In codifying we transfer to the Legislature the work that for ages the judges have

performed—that of declaring, while engaged in the administration of justice, exactly what the law is. So far have we exalted this function in the United States that we have enabled a judge to nullify an act of the Legislature, simply because he conceives it to be in conflict with the principles of justice which we make permanent as constitutional law. It is indeed our constitutions which are our true codes, and which contain the only rules that we deem worthy to be made eternal, immutable, and irreversible. And what are they? That nothing shall impair the obligation of a legally binding promise; that the humblest and even the worst man shall be protected against the mightiest and the best in his life, his property, and his liberty; that there may be tribunals on earth in which neither favor, nor interest, nor wealth, nor strength counts in the scales. And there have been courts and there are courts, where this great ideal of our race is actually realized.

If this view of the subject is correct, it puts the whole dispute as to codification in a new light, and moreover it accords with the view that most of us have been taught by experience to take of the whole relation of the Legislature to the judiciary. The nearest approach to codification that we can make is to give the body of private law temporarily the form of a statute. Upon this statute will immediately accumulate the same gloss of judicial interpretation and exposition that all other statutes suffer, with the additional defect that we have made possible in every case a dispute about the meaning of an arrangement of words, as well as a dispute as to the proper application of principles. Every lawyer knows that no statute is ever administered in a court of justice in this country without a careful examination by the judges, first, as to what the law was before the statute was passed; second, what effect the statute was intended to produce; and third, what effect it has produced. If we make all law statutory, we make all this inquiry necessary in every class of cases, where now it is necessary only in a few; and as it is confessedly impossible to make a perfect code at one stroke, the Legislature would be perpetually at work amending and altering it. This is precisely what has happened in the case of the code of procedure, a subject generally admitted to be easier to codify than any other. Codification has merely rendered a lawsuit possible over every point which was formerly a matter of "practice," to be learnt by familiarity with the rules of court.

What is there in such a prospect to attract any sensible man, or make him think that codification will make the law simple, certain, and intelligible? Our judges may not be perfect, but they are better than our Legislatures, and the transfer of the function of declaring what the law is, from one to the other, must practically be expected to have still worse results than if the assumption (always underlying the argument of the codifier) that the Legislature can be trusted to do the work well, were true. But it cannot, and here the character of Mr. Field's code greatly reinforces the abstract argument. This body of law, which is the result, on his own showing, of a twenty years' experiment by the State, is neither a complete code, nor a coherent code, nor an intelligible code, nor a code which states the law as it is. The examination of its provisions made by Mr. Carter and his associates has resulted in showing that it is so bad a piece of work that it could lead only to enormous confusion in the best settled branches of law. A doubt about codification is a serious matter; what are we to say of the certainty of its being a failure? When Mr. Field began his work there was a general hope that he would succeed,

His failure to produce a respectable piece of codification may not be conclusive as to codification in general, but, taken in connection with the total change in the modern way of looking at the whole subject, it is enough.

History of Prussia to the Accession of Frederick the Great, 1134-1740. By Herbert Tuttle, Professor in Cornell University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THE task which Professor Tuttle has here undertaken is a very difficult one, and one which, perhaps on account of its difficulties, has never before engaged the serious attention of any English or American scholar; though surely there could be no more worthy occupation for the ablest historical pen than a description of the growth of that political system which came prominently into notice in the time of Frederick the Great, and again so astonished the world in the second half of our own century. Our author's purpose is briefly but clearly expressed in the preface. He has attempted, not to give a narrative of events, but to describe the political development of Prussia from the earliest times down to the death of the second King. This has led him to make somewhat minute researches into the early institutions of Brandenburg, and accordingly, as he says, "the development of the Constitution has received more attention than wars or treaties, than dynastic intrigues or territorial conquests." The reader, therefore, may as well be warned that the book holds out very few allurements to those who "need to be tempted to the pursuit of knowledge." The great questions which go to determine a nation's policy and a nation's growth are often very subtle in their nature, and are seldom very interesting in their details; and hence it follows that the author of a work of this kind, who holds steadily to his purpose, inevitably runs the risk of producing what will popularly be called a dry book. Indeed, Professor Tuttle has so rigorously excluded all but the most essential facts, that when he seems compelled to enter into interesting details, he actually forces himself into an attitude of explanation or apology.

He begins with a chapter on Primitive and Mediaeval Brandenburg, and follows this with a description of early society and institutions. To this, again, succeeds an account of the chaotic condition which prevailed in Germany during the seventeenth century, and of the way in which, on the election of Sigismund to the imperial throne, Brandenburg passed to the House of Hohenzollern. The overthrow of the Diet, and the virtual establishment of absolutism under the Great Elector, the weak foreign and domestic policies of Frederick I., and the final organization of the government under the eccentric Frederick William I., are the subjects which occupy a greater portion of the volume. Throughout, the design has evidently been not to bring new facts to light so much as to show the significance of such facts as are already well established. Professor Tuttle has not generally made use of original sources, but he has constantly availed himself of the ample materials which for years the scholarship and the industry of Germany have been bringing together. The general reader will probably find the first chapter the least interesting; but if his intelligence is sufficiently robust, and his interest sufficiently scholarly, to carry him through the remainder, he will certainly be rewarded by finding that, with perhaps the exception of the chapter on the Foreign Relations of Frederick William I., the work steadily improves from beginning to end.

The history of the development of Prussian

institutions naturally and logically divides itself into three parts: the period of early and independent local institutions, the period of chaotic struggle between these institutions and the feudal chieftains, and the period of the triumph and the exercise of absolutism. Now, looked at from the point of view of the welfare of the people, what was the fundamental peculiarity of this succession of struggles? The first answer is that the early institutions, however promising in themselves, were so feeble in their character that when they came into contact with the methods of feudalism they were utterly powerless to preserve and protect the rights of individuals. A period of chaos ensued, in which there was a constantly increasing accumulation of power in the hands of petty nobles. But chaos always does and always must come to an end, and it invariably yields to the strongest force in the state. The elements of the contest in Brandenburg and Prussia were not essentially different from those of similar struggles that were going on elsewhere in Germany and in other parts of Europe. Wherever local institutions had been established, the struggle was a triangular contest between those institutions, the several orders of nobility, and the head of the state. This struggle, though essentially the same in its fundamental characteristics, terminated in various ways, in regard to which it is enough for our purpose to say that the interests of the people were best subserved in those nations where the King was triumphant, and where, by virtue of his triumph, he drove the nobility and the people into a defensive alliance. The typical example of this result was in England. But the issue in Prussia, though coming at a much later period, differed little. The problem, from the accession of the Great Elector to the death of Frederick the Great, was in its fundamental characteristics not very unlike that which confronted the Norman kings. Was the King or were the nobles to be the dominant power of the state? In England, the triumph of absolutism under the Conqueror and his successors was long regarded as a political misfortune; but it is now almost universally admitted that it was the Conquest which established the nationality, and drove the nobility and people into that sympathetic alliance which produced the Great Charter and the House of Commons. So in the case of Prussia, the establishment of absolutism has resulted in a similar combination, and political relations are shaping themselves in Germany during the present century very much as they shaped themselves in England four hundred years ago.

To this analogy the objection may be raised that Brandenburg passed through all that experience in the thirteenth century, and that it was only the rapacity of the Electors that prevented at that time a development of those institutions which are just now beginning to take shape. Did not Brandenburg already have parliamentary institutions, and did not the people already have a Great Charter? True, but it must not be forgotten that they were powerless to accomplish their work. Probably the institutions of England would have been equally powerless but for the necessities of English Kings in carrying on their Continental wars. At all events, it is certain that in Germany the Diets were helpless to protect the people; and it was because of this weakness that they passed out of existence, not only in Brandenburg but in every one of the other German States. And we believe that every scholar who has noted the way in which the Diets were made up, and the way in which their business was carried on, will hesitate long before deciding that their fall was any misfortune to the people. The real question

in the struggle was, Where is the chief power of the state to be, in the hands of the King or in the hands of the nobles? And when this was the issue, it was doubtless for the good of the land that the King should triumph, for the simple reason that, taken at its best or at its worst, the absolutism of a single monarch is preferable to the anarchy of a horde of nobles.

We have left no space in which to examine the details of the present volume, which we commend to the thoughtful attention of our readers. We trust it is but a forerunner of other volumes which will give us an account of the large remaining portion of Prussian history.

Marie Antoinette. By Sarah Tytler. [The New Plutarch.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883. 12mo, pp. 234.

MISS TYTLER'S life of Marie Antoinette has all the merits which one seeks in a short biography, and we have no doubt that it will be accepted as the most satisfactory sketch of its subject. Her aim is biographical rather than historical, and the reader receives from her a vivid impression of the charm of personality and the innocent life of the Queen. At the same time the book could not help being largely historical, and the historical chapters are graphic and instructive. What we miss, in the truthful and sympathetic sketch of the Queen's character, is a distinct appreciation of her influence on the history of the time. No one nowadays would repeat, or even incline to believe, the slanders that were current against her at the time, nor to make her directly responsible for the misgovernment which caused the Revolution. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that her public influence, such as it was, was not good. If the greatest misfortune of the time was a King who did not know how to govern, it was no small evil that there was a Queen who had no comprehension either of the nation over which she was placed, or of the circumstances and forces which surrounded her. Her husband would have made an excellent locksmith; she would have been a charming and blameless duchess. Neither of them was suited to a throne in troublous times.

Electricity, Magnetism, and Electric Telegraphy: A Practical Guide and Hand Book of General Information for Electrical Students, Operators, and Inspectors. By Thomas D. Lockwood. D. Van Nostrand.

MR. LOCKWOOD is already favorably known by his 'Practical Information for Telephonists,' which has had an extensive sale. His present work is especially prepared for the benefit of the large class of persons who are practically employed in connection with the telegraph, the telephone, the electric light, etc. The author's design is to aid those "self-helpers" who desire to obtain a knowledge of the science of electricity, but who have not had, and are unable to obtain, the advantages of a collegiate or other institutional training. This is admirably carried out, and besides being useful to the class for whom it is especially prepared, the work will be found interesting to the general reader, because of the simplicity and directness of the author's style and his symmetrical arrangement of his topics.

The earlier chapters of the book are elementary, treating concisely and clearly of frictional, voltaic, and thermal electricity; the phenomena of earth currents, magnetism, and electromagnetism. Then follows a statement of the theory and construction of magneto and dynamo-electric generators; a chapter on induction-coils and condensers; a chapter of definitions of electrical terms; and a chapter on

electrical measurements, which is especially noteworthy, because the author, while making the subject clear, has abstained from the use of algebraic formulæ. The remaining chapters, rather more than one-half of the book, are devoted to descriptions of the various practical applications of electricity, and are followed by a copious and well-arranged index. The superior mechanical execution of the book—its large, clear type, fine paper, and numerous well-executed illustrations—contributes greatly to the comfort and pleasure of its readers.

The Silverado Squatters. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Boston: Roberts Bros.

MANY readers have doubtless already found much enjoyment in Mr. Stevenson's entertaining sketches of California scenery and life, which were printed not long since in the *Century*, under the title of "The Silverado Squatters," and are now collected in a volume. Silverado is the name of an abandoned mining camp, well up on the slope of Mount Saint Helena, about a day's ride from Calistoga, in California. The squatters were the author, his wife, and son, who, apparently wandering in quest of some secluded spot where they might enjoy a quiet out-door life, drifted in this direction, and took possession of the deserted and dilapidated house which had formerly been the assay office and dwelling-place of the manager and men who once worked the now idle mine. The noise of the workmen had given place to silence, and not a soul remained to care for the wreck. The squatters had few neighbors, and none nearby; and they spent in the quiet enjoyment of nature, or of their available resources in art and literature, whatever time the cares of living left at their disposal. There is but little told in the way of a story. The chapters are a series of sketches; but whether the author chooses for his subject the aspects of nature or the study of his fellow-men and women, who chance for the time to be his associates, he shows the observing eye and graceful touch of an artist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brackenbury, Col. C. B. Frederick the Great. New Plutarch Series. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.
Cortell, Bishop H. Revealed Religion Expounded by Its Relations to the Moral Being of God. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.
Litchfield, Grace D. Only an Incident: a Story. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE WATER COLOR EXHIBITION.

THE Hanging Committee of the Water-Color Society have shown a large sense of the function of decoration in the arrangement of the collection of drawings and the ornamentation of the rooms of the Academy, and, perhaps, while increasing the strength of the ensemble, have diminished the purely pictorial power of the separate contributions. What with tapestries and decorations, the studied harmony of the arrangement which subordinates each drawing to a general effect, and the persistent character of so much of the work—a character not so individual as one might desire, but still not so peculiar in its general tendency as to merit the distinction of a school—it is hard to form a rapid general judgment on the exhibition. There is a first impression of cleverness and good technical qualities which on closer analysis is not sustained by the generality of the drawings, which are, in by far too large a proportion, only technically noteworthy. Nor is the general technical merit of that higher kind which shows severe and long training, but that which is the result of facility rather than certainty of hand: clever washing of color, rapid and fresh approximation to really good work rather than complete

rendering of what is aimed at, a careless and haphazard hitting at effects without the attempt to remedy, seriously and patiently, the shortcomings of the first work. One is at first surprised at seeing so much rapid and effective work, but finally discovers that it is a *parti pris* to do as much as can be done with facility and an appearance of masterly directness, and then leave the drawing for what it is worth. Out of nearly seven hundred drawings there are not above one hundred and fifty which show signs of really earnest grappling with the difficulties of the material, and the determination to do the artist's very best. And yet the greater part of the exhibitors are scarcely beyond the position of students of the elements of art. There are by far too many drawings here whose object was attained with the quality of a wash and the indication of a broad and artistic effect—indolent trifling with a fascinating material, and at best only portfolio successes: studies of in doors or out doors to be kept in the studio for aid and suggestion in more serious and persistent work. This trifling is not art, it is not even study: it is the vagabondage of natures which enjoy the unrestraint of artist life—its more impulsive and emotional side—and shirk the severe discipline and long technical training by which alone the doing of good work is possible even to the most seriously disposed and greatest painter. These emulations of the broad and masterly treatment of the great painters, without any of the certainty of hand and security of method which the great painters had, are simply a waste of life and labor. The man who cannot do the simple, labored, and student-like work which seems to be avoided as confession of weakness, will never do great work. The short cuts to greatness do not exist in art any more than in science, and the most fertile and artistic nature, without the severe application which alone can give certainty of method or result, wastes itself in the vagabondage of impressionism. An artist whose technical success is his best claim to notice, is certain to end by losing all his hold on general appreciation.

This must be our general criticism on the larger part of the drawings exhibited, and which could only be particularized in identical terms—fresh, bright quality of color, good indication of pictorial effect, but no drawing and no serious attempt to realize the finer traits of the subject; the more trivial technical qualities well developed, the higher utterly wanting. This is a discouraging diagnosis for a young school, but the malady is there, and the fault is not with the critic. It is no more conclusive to say that the Hanging Committee should not have accepted the mass of trivial and inconsequent things that are hung, for the artists thought them fit subjects of criticism or they would not have sent them. And it may be said once for all that accepting water-color as a branch of painting simply because it is more agreeable when half, or ill, completed, is preaccepted failure. The medium has great advantage for the modern vein of art—it is, on the whole, easier than oil and less liable to alteration by time or the effect of light and darkness, and it lends itself to the diminished scale of execution which is fitter for modern collectors than the large scale which is generally necessary to give freedom to the painters in oils, while the qualities of color which mark the true colorist are far more readily attained in water than in oil. These are reasons which ought to weigh both with the artists and the public, but which are of no value unless the painter finds the method worthy of as serious application as his patience and capacities will permit. It is a trap to desultory and insincere painters.

There are two distinct aims which the use of water-color permits and which in their separate way are admissible as legitimate objects of the most sincere study, viz.: the quality of freshness and reality which is only to be got by conscientious work from nature, carried to the extreme of the artist's ability; and the study of harmony of line, mass, and color which constitute the qualities of art, and in the pursuit of which the too close attention to nature is an embarrassment, and, more or less, a cause of failure. The latter aim is that pursued by most of the great water colorists of the English school, and in our water-color exhibition there are some successful followers of its traditions. The drawings of Messrs. H. Farrer, S. Colman, and W. T. Richards are, in the main, completely successful realizations of this motive. The Nos. 156 and 359 of Mr. Farrer are admirable examples of the traditions of the orthodox water-color school of England, of which Copley Fielding and Barrett were the early masters—strong in effect of color, with a purely transparent method, and deep, quiet, golden-gray tones in entire harmony; good tonality without any attempt at range in color-harmony, but the most complete attainment of the self-imposed limitation of the artist's form of art. The No. 156 has a peculiar tenderness and subtlety in the rendering of the local color of the middle distance against the twilight sky; and though the foreground is not well selected in reference to the lines of the picture, it is in excellent keeping, and the shimmering reflections in the pool are well rendered. The sky in 359 is a glorious golden, cirrus-filled sunset, composed with great feeling, and glowing like a sunset of Copley Fielding's. The foreground again is the weakest point, and seems to be chosen for its difficulty, but there is no success in meeting it. The painting of a common highway with no object to break its absolute uniformity, the converging lines of rut and road filling the entire breadth of the foreground, is not an inviting task, and Mr. Farrer has only done with it what any one could have done. Mr. Richards's No. 355—"Limits of the Unresting Sea"—an open beach with the open sea coming in with a dull, monotonous surf, running up the flat sands, and a gray aerial sky, without incident of cloud or sun, is certainly as commonplace in choice of subject as anything can be, and bears the marks of being a favorite theme and effect, but is rendered with a painstaking and subtle feeling for tone and quality of air and space, a delicacy of gradation from one edge to the other, which is rare and admirable. Of Mr. Colman's work there are several types. The Moorish architectural subject, No. 461, gives the greatest range of his pictorial power, but No. 312 is the more powerful in sentiment and freest from a certain painful tendency to blues which injures some of his drawings greatly.

The distinction between naturalistic and artistic ideals which is so easy in landscape—where at need the artistic ideal sacrifices any and every particular fact to bring out "the light that never was, on sea or land"—becomes almost theoretical in application to figure painting, and not at all easy to draw. It does, however, exist, and of the representative pictures in the exhibition of one or the other class, the "Companions," No. 28, by A. M. Turner, and No. 45, "His First Business Venture," by T. W. Wood, will best serve to illustrate it—both strong and in their kind excellent works. The drawing by Mr. Wood is a skilful and honestly painted realistic study, brilliant in local color, well drawn, carefully modelled, and as method of painting most judicious and solid. All absolutely realistic artists, however, stand in danger of missing some of the greater qualities of realism, and be-

coming what we might call actualistic. The larger realism embraces the *ensemble* in all its relations, and of these the influence of position on the subject of the picture is one of the chief. To put this in terms no one can misunderstand, we may say, for instance, that the most strongly realistic figure painted in sunlight and posed in a twilight landscape would be an incongruity which no one with an eye would fail to detect, though similar violations of reality in realistic work often pass unnoticed. This brilliant study of Mr. Wood's, for instance, strikes us as painted in a concentrated studio light, while the background indicates an out-door pose. But the out-door light is broad and "all-around"—it flattens the modelling, and grays all local color, and the figure or figures are part of the general scheme of color and light and shade, in which no "bit" of local color can separate itself from the general harmony. In this respect Meissonier shows himself a true master in all those secondary qualities of realism which come into the superficial conception of the subject. This unity Mr. Wood's picture misses—the figure is painted in a light which it does not stand in, as indicated by the accessories. Now Mr. Turner's subject, conceived in a poetic relation, is consistent throughout. It is not realistic—its color is distinctly due to the painter's feeling, and the scheme is far from that which a bit of severely actual color would have made necessary; but it is entirely harmonious in color, solemn, and in complete accord with the meditative character of the subject. It is most distinctly a work in the higher vein of art.

The "Pandora" of Mr. Church is a brilliant fantasy in decorative art, with a vein of playful imagination which willfully sends consistency with the myth or with material probabilities to the right-about. The Pandora is a slight, active slip of a girl, charged with a strong box like a bank safe, which, in her genuine fright at having disobediently opened, she has shut, and, vaulting on the lid, seeks to compress the struggling imps within to their original prison quarters, while her eyes, dismayed, follow the interminable wreath of escaped woes which is melting into the empyrean. It is not the Greek Pandora myth, but a variation on it, whose entire consistency with itself is justification enough for its creation. The method is not one to develop the high qualities of color as they may be rendered in water color, and the artist's choice of it probably indicates his comparative indifference to that side of art. On this point, certainly, we can say *de gustibus*, etc., for no painter can be expected to be true to another standard than his own. The two decorative drawings by Mr. Weldon—"Flirtation" and "The Elopement"—deal with doll life in a whimsical vein, and are so good in their way that they hardly become amenable to the strict criticism which awaits more serious work. A Japanese doll, fallen victim, like beings with brains, to contiguity, contrives an attachment to a pretty Parisian *poupée*, and flirts in a wooden way in one tableau; and in the other bears his doll-love away into the doll heaven, with the aid of a few India-rubber balloons. The execution is facile and sufficient for its purpose: more realism would perhaps be out of place in the generally decorative plan. Mr. Dielman's "Between Sitzings," No. 316, is good drawing and satisfactory color. The subject is perhaps commonplace enough to make something more thorough in the treatment desirable, but, on the whole, there is a more than usual balance of good qualities. Still, work of this kind, which is in the vein of *pose plastique*, distinctly realistic, and presenting no difficulties in realization to the last degree, ought to

be carried further than this is, or than anything in this vein in the exhibition. The drawing called "Greta," No. 394, by Thulstrup, is perhaps, on the whole, as good an *ensemble* of the good qualities of water color as we could hope to see, and certainly for tone, quality of color, and strength of general effect, it has nothing to ask of oils. The broad effect of the low-toned, blue-gray snow under the yellow break of sky, and the purity and brilliancy of the flesh color in the girl's face, coming as shadow against the same break of light, may be pointed out as technical successes of a high grade; while the action of the girl as she comes swinging down the path in her Sunday gown, solid on her feet and sure of herself, is in the best vein of figure drawing.

Of landscape in the realistic vein there are some remarkable studies by Mr. H. P. Smith. "A New England Village," No. 56, is an elaborate and very exact study of a familiar subject, the typical New England houses buried in the foliage of their streets and gardens, curiously true to local color, but with all the houses distressingly out of perspective. The two smaller studies in the same vein, No. 253, "River Scene in England," and No. 416, "Summer on the River Loire, France," have the same quality of refined realism and more pictorial treatment, with the advantage of very picturesque material. The reflections in No. 253 are, however, entirely false. The success of Mr. Smith in these studies in giving the peculiar qualities of gray green which a broad sky illumination gives to masses of foliage, and in rendering the modulations of local color without the least of that exaggeration of local tint which is so tempting under the circumstances, makes these two little drawings very valuable lessons to our younger water-color painters who want to see how the best out-of-door qualities may be got without loss of freshness and purity of tint. Charles Harry Eaton contributes some excellent drawings sharing these good realistic qualities: silvery greens and well-balanced sunlight and shadow, with a good perception of the better qualities of pictorial landscape. Nos. 442 and 633 especially are successful transcripts of nature—solid in color and sincere in execution. "A Pack Train," by Hamilton Hamilton, has excellent qualities of color—the brilliant foliage of the large group of trees in shadow against a burst of sunlight in the distance showing a very true eye for color and a good method of execution. "The Harvest Field," No. 438, by the same painter, has some excellent qualities of character in the figures and of bright sunny color in the landscape, but lacks breadth, and fails in producing the forcible impression which, with the same materials, a larger method of treatment would have insured.

In realistic color, an admirable study of Harry Fenn, No. 304, "A Pennsylvania Bee Colony," is very vivid. The light on brilliant local color is rendered with an extreme felicity, and the pictorial treatment of the subject is delightful. Mr. George Smillie contributes two pleasant drawings, Nos. 1 and 455, and James Smillie, a roadside composition, No. 465, which to our mind would be improved in its general effect by cutting off three inches of the near foreground. "At Watermills," by Bricher, is a solid, effective drawing, the value of the foreground being ingeniously but honestly given. A "Winter Evening in New Jersey," by Mr. McCord, is a very successful rendering of a not easy effect: the snow in shadow of twilight, against a bright evening sky. Two drawings by the late A. F. Bellows well represent a genial, gentle artist in a vein of landscape in which he was entirely at home. Hardly to be classed with landscape, and yet with an excellent landscape surrounding, is

Leon Moran's "The Outpost, 1776," subtle in drawing and color: a young vidette on horse-back, watching intently; horse and man well characterized, and with a picturesque setting in the old-time costume.

Several drawings by Mr. C. A. Platt show great executive ability, and an excellent *coup d'œil*, with keen feeling for color in the gray and mingled tints of old architecture and sea-coast bits. "Bruges," No. 137, is particularly happy. Harry Chase's marine subjects have that bright "papery" quality so much beloved by one class of water-color painters, of whom the type was George Tripp, the English water-colorist of years gone by—the purity of tint got only by leaving the wash pretty much as the first intention realized it; and Arthur Quartley is, with more dash and less justice in his tones, "in the same boat." Mr. Monks, in some admirable sheepstudies, makes his really good landscape surroundings quite accessory to studies of the woolly tribe which, in their knowledge of the animal, quite rival Jacque. No. 7, "Autumn Pasture," is full of promise as well as

ability. Mr. Monks has clearly found his walk. F. Hopkinson Smith contributes several important drawings, most of them rapid studies from nature—if the canals of Venice may be classed with nature subjects—of which No. 51, a group of lighters in a canal of the sea-city, is to our mind the best, its water painting giving with uncommon justice the interlacing reflections of the sails and sky with the local color of the water. The best of his drawings as a whole, however, we must consider his brook scene, No. 78. The quality one gets in out-of-door work is all very well for study, and admirable oftentimes as nature, but, unless supplemented by indoor labor *limé*, never reaches consummate art. Among the marines we must not neglect an excellent study of light on moving water in No. 55, "After the Shower," by Mr. Rehn, where the effect of the sunburst is very truly given. The shadow of the sail is not, however, true—it is not, as it ought to be, a mere interference with the reflection of the sun on the waves, but a shadow, and clear water takes no shadow.

In the corridor are hidden many drawings, of which scarcely any can be judged, from want of light. There is a large group of flower studies, of which most are little better than splashes of color, "Chrysanthemum," No. 409, being the only thoroughly studied drawing among them. A lover of flowers should feel something more in them than is seen in most of these studies—the delicacy, the subtlety of color, fragility, and something of the specific character. In the East Gallery hangs a noble flower piece, No. 248, "A Brimming Bowl," by Agnes D. Abbott, which merits the place apart given it. It has the double excellence of happy arrangement and sincere and skilful rendering of the best qualities of the flowers, with thoroughly good painting.

We have inadvertently passed over the marines of Mr. Edward Moran, which are as far as they go thoroughly good (but more is in the sea than he has yet caught out of it), and the "White Study" of Ross Turner, No. 278—a weird and effective, if slight, record of a picturesque moment in modern Venice invaded by steam.

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